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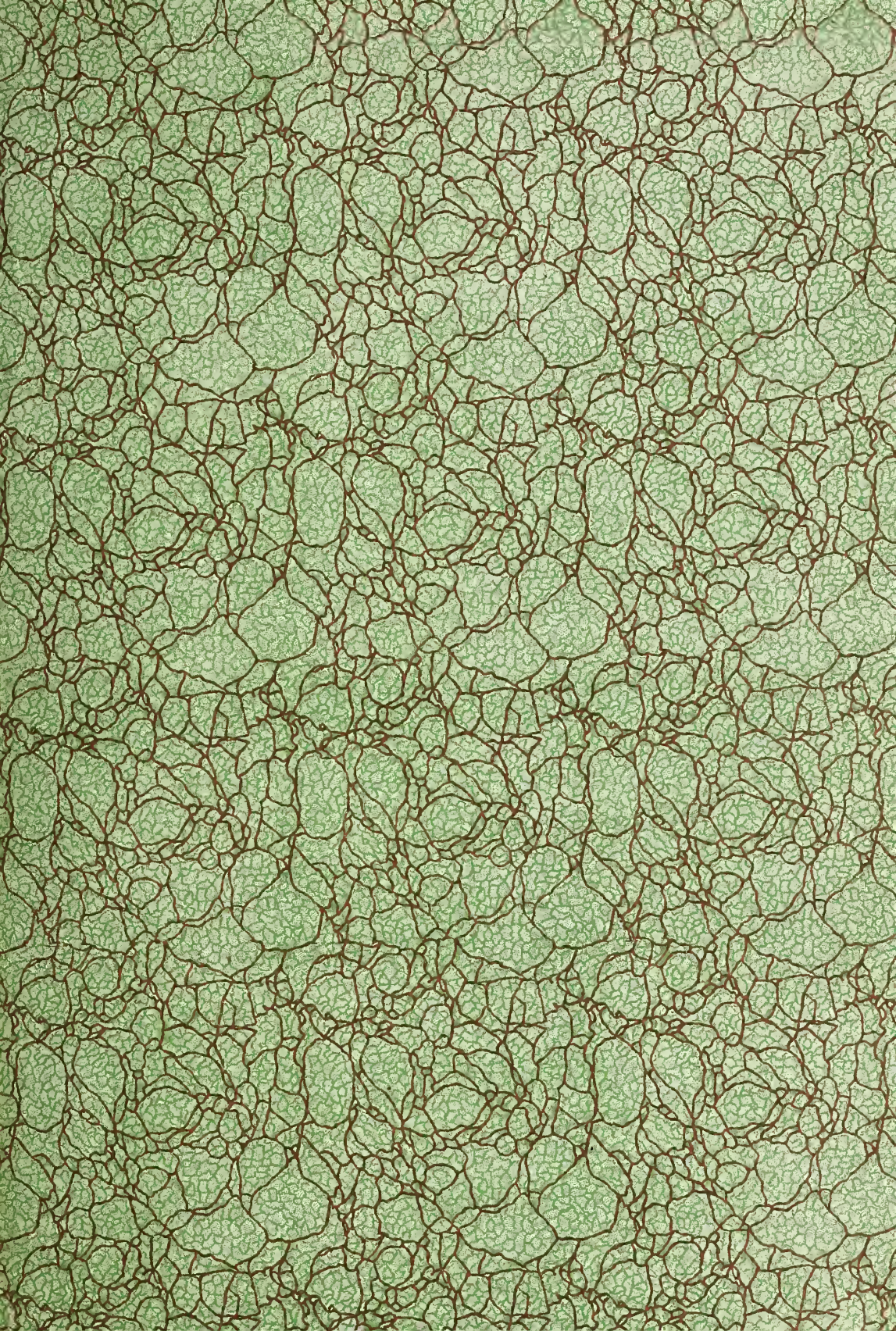
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Spread
of Visiting
Nursing.

Visiting nursing in America is comparatively young, but that it is yearly gathering more momentum is evident from two tables of statistics; one presented in 1901 at the International Congress of Nurses in Buffalo by Miss Fulmer, of Chicago, when a careful search had elicited reports from 53 different associations, with a total number of 130 odd nurses, and the other read at Portland, Oregon in 1905, at the National Conference of Charities and Correction, by Miss Waters, of New York, giving a total of over 200 associations with a total of 440 odd nurses. Outside of America, visiting nursing is at least as old as Christianity, for the most cherished work of the apostolic church was to visit the sick poor in their homes and to send the deaconess or widow to nurse them.

From that day to this, visiting nursing has never ceased to be practised by the orders of the Catholic Church, and it received a new impulse and vigorous life under Vincent de Paul, with the practical beneficence of the sisters of charity. Pious protestants urged that the gravest defect of protestantism was that it had no sisters of charity, and in 1836 this conviction in the heart of Pastor Fliedner and his wife Frederika created the modern order of Lutheran Deaconesses, whose training, shared and approved by

Miss Nightingale, has so strongly influenced the training of the modern secular nurse.

Sporadic as our American visiting nursing systems are, they have spread in a spontaneous way quite without any general movement such as was carried on in Great Britain and Canada. It is a question whether the time is not coming for some broad and comprehensive mobilization of forces in establishing visiting nursing. While it may be that this is not urgent in the large cities, it is without a doubt only by large co-operative movements that our vast rural and country districts of mountain and plain can possibly be provided with skilled nursing. And it is the lonely country region where the need is often the most urgent.

One of the most experienced nurses in the country, Miss Harriet Fulmer, wrote, in suggesting methods to those contemplating such projects:

First comes the need; then the presentation of the project at a general meeting of the public, at which prominent physicians of the locality should be asked to speak in indorsement. Then comes the mode of support, usually best by voluntary contributions in small sums from the public rather than from individuals, as then one may feel that they have a special claim upon the service. If operated upon the non-sectarian principle (and illness is strictly non-sectarian), you then have the support of all elements. Cases should be accepted from all

This number, dealing with one of the most dynamic movements of the century affecting public health, is published under the supervision of L. L. Dock, secretary of the International Council of Nurses, in whose field it falls as a departmental editor of *Charities and the Commons*. - Ed.

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sources. An ideal system may have many adjuncts operating in connection with it. There will be the flower mission, diet kitchen, and convalescent home in some country district to which patients may be sent. Then there must be the ever-ready and well-filled loan press, containing every known article that may be used for the comfort and well-being of the sick. In country regions this supply may be sent by express in a suitable chest, as is done in Germany by the Association for Supplying Comforts to the Sick. The German chests contain bedding, linen, blankets, gowns, utensils of all kinds, rubber appliances, air and water pillows, head rests, pulleys, bed tables, surgical dressings, disinfectants, night lamps, feeding cups and tubes, etc., etc., and a formalin lamp for disinfection. The articles are confided to the care of the attending physician, if no nurse is there, and the patient if possible pays something for the use of the outfit. These chests reach the wildest and most remote country regions throughout Germany, and are of untold benefit, as many even well-to-do country people are quite unprovided with appliances for comfort in illness.

The most successful organizations go upon the principle that the best results are gained when the professional nurse gives the service assisted by the most modern sick room appliances rather than by make-shifts, while yet always giving information as to what articles may be utilized when the modern ones are not to be had. In starting the work in a new locality, preference should be given to a nurse who has had experience in such work. She should be required to state how she would meet the various emergencies that might arise in the work; how she would send a case to the hospital, secure ambulance service, report cases for relief to institutions and societies, summer homes, etc. The next step in the right direction for the work in America will be the establishment of post-graduate courses or special training homes for nurses wishing to take up this work, for too many nurses come into it having little or no idea as to the requirements and demands, and during a period of perhaps the first year, the organizations suffer by their lack of knowledge.

The success of visiting nursing depends, more than in hospital or private practice, upon the character of the nurse.

**The Sanitary
Problem
of the
Country Side.**

With a few notable exceptions, such as the state of New Hampshire, and Mt. Kisco, in New York state,

our vast rural population is still untouched and unthought of in sanitary and nursing advance.

It is a subject for serious reflection on the part of state authorities, that many a smiling Eden-like valley is blighted by perennial diphtheria, scarlet fever,

and meningitis, to say nothing of typhoid. In the picturesque cabin of the mountaineer and the comfortable-looking farm house, contagious diseases are as rampant as in the city, and they are far less effectively combatted. In the city contagions are reported and houses can be disinfected. But where are country homes reported when contagion strikes them, and who disinfects them? Country folk are, as a rule, far less intelligent and up-to-date in their understanding of how contagion is carried, than the tenement dwellers, who have many more avenues of instruction open to them.

So far, in the whole sweep of organization for visiting nursing, the existence of contagious disease has been practically ignored. It stands as almost the rock-bottom of district nursing association rules that no contagious case will be taken. As a rule, even chicken-pox and facial erysipelas are included in this prohibition. Without taking the irrational attitude that a visiting nurse ought to, or could take contagious cases with others,—which is, of course, out of the question, it is contended that the problem of contagious disease yet remains the gravest part of the whole sanitary question and the point especially urged is that this problem has not been attacked in a determined and definite way. When considered from the small point of view, it would seem more important that a visiting nurse association should send a nursing missionary to the child with scarlet fever, who was liable to lose its hearing as a result of carelessness, than to provide one for the average uncritical medical or surgical case. And considered from a large viewpoint this question of rural sanitation means the unwitting pollution of water-courses, the infection of hundreds of city dwellers through the milk supply and even by green vegetables and salads, and needless suffering to the rural population. Here is call for a serious campaign of education to be entered upon in rural districts, by state boards of health or by voluntary state associations, in respect to typhoid fever, scarlet fever, measles, diphtheria, and the whole race of influenzas. Leaflets might be distributed, like those of the New

York Board of Health, and some comprehensive plan for disinfecting dwellings could be initiated. The example of the present activity of the Pennsylvania State Board of Health in respect to smallpox might be adopted as suggestive. By dint of long neglect of sanitary precautions and of vaccination, Pennsylvania has reached the unenviable distinction of being a hotbed of smallpox and of propagating that preventable disease over the entire United States.

Under Dr. Dixon's energetic leadership an educational campaign is being waged, which (though indeed it should not have been necessary) is likely to stamp out the danger. In like manner, the whole field of ordinary contagions in rural communities is white for the sickle of the sanitary scientist. It is most probable that no local association could rise to this need, but there seems no possible reason why a state board of health, co-operating with local associations, should not supply nurses for urgent need in rural districts, to nurse, demonstrate, and teach, or why it should not also, in co-operation with local medical societies, disinfect every country home where there had been a contagious malady.

As for the large cities, every urban community could imitate the admirable example of the New York city Board of Health in providing a special staff of nurses for service in cases of scarlet fever, measles, and diphtheria in the homes of the poor. This is the more urgent, as few of our large cities have adequate hospital provision for these cases. In no one of its many conspicuously excellent lines of oversight and precaution is this board of health more to be commended than in this, in which it stands alone.

The Hourly Nurse. American social conditions seem especially suited to the spread of one phase of visiting nursing. The hourly nurse is not a charity worker, nor is she the nurse of the well-to-do. Her field lies among families with incomes from \$600 to \$1,500 a year, or even \$2,000 to \$3,000. To provide these with trained nursing has been one of the serious and abiding re-

sponsibilities of the public, including nurses themselves. Payments are not nominal, but vary from \$.50 to \$1.00 an hour. Few nurses have the capital to support them while working up an hourly service. It is essential that the hourly nurse should be guaranteed a salary until her work is on a settled basis; then it should be self-supporting. One way is for an alumnae society, or a woman's club, or a union of churches to guarantee the nurse's salary for a year while she is making her way.

It takes a long while for the people of a large town to learn of the existence of an hourly nursing system, and just what it means; the development of this service is therefore especially dependent upon the physician. Yet a great difficulty about this branch of service is that medical men are exceedingly slow to take it up. Hourly nursing on this basis has long been a feature of the visiting nursing work in Amsterdam, Holland, and the report of the superintendent states that even there the physicians continually forget to report suitable cases.

Medical Supervision of School Children.

Whatever else may be added to the three R's of the public schools, medical supervision is bound to be looked upon as fundamental. This involves more than cursory medical inspection. Dr. Cronin's article shows the need for a thorough-going physical examination as a prime factor in any effective scheme; and Miss Rogers shows the co-ordinate work of the school nurse in all its fascination and its far-reaching influence.

The progressive system of medical inspection as developed in New York—and it is still a growing system there—illustrates what can be carried out in a great city. What can be done in a town has been shown by Montclair, N. J., where medical inspection has been carried on in the public schools for something over one year. The expense is met by an appropriation by the health board. Four physicians, one of them a woman, give thorough inspection and examination of the children every three months and a more cursory examination every week, besides being always ready to make

examination into suspected illness. These doctors have full authority to exclude a child from school, or to quarantine a school department. Baths have been introduced in some of the schools in the poorer districts, in connection with the medical inspection, and bathing is prescribed by the physicians where desirable. The system has met with favor and is considered a practical success. The details of administration are in the hands of a joint committee of three members each, from the board of education and the board of health.

The most comprehensive state-wide movement in this field is that which has been sponsored by the Massachusetts Civic League. A committee, of which Dr. Richard C. Cabot is chairman, introduced a bill in the present general assembly. This received strong support at a recent hearing and is being held for careful study by a committee. So far as is known, no state in the union has even considered such legislation. The bill applies the system to every school in the state without exception, modifying the method of application considerably, however, to fit the needs of the rural school. The city of Boston is omitted only because it already has medical inspection, but it is expected that the agitation in support of the movement will make the rather desultory work there more effective than it has been in the past. It has already apparently overcome the ultra conservative nicety of certain people who it would seem, held that adequate health supervision in the schools is an infringement upon personal liberty. These people seem to overlook the spirit of our entire educational system, and that it is nothing more than reasonable, after forcing a boy to go to school, to see that he does the work with no serious handicap, and thus close one of the greatest doors to discouragement and dissatisfaction, leading to truancy. Truancy is one of the most important first steps to crime, and along with it must be included the morbid mental state which comes from inability to do what other pupils are doing. Certain propositions on the score of expense have been raised. A Massachusetts legislator was heard to say recently that

he was tired of hearing people object to cost along such lines, when he himself was constantly having to join in voting away hundreds of thousands of dollars for prisons, insane asylums and similar institutions. He said in effect that he believed in locking the door before the horse was stolen. The text of the measure (House 748) follows:

SECTION 1. The school committee of every town and of every city except Boston shall appoint one or more school physicians, shall assign a school physician to every public school within its city or town, shall provide him with all necessary blanks and with all proper facilities for the performance of his duties, and shall require him to call at every such school to which he is assigned daily or at such other interval as may be prescribed by the committee, and whenever notified by the head of the school; except that in the case of schools in remote and isolated situations the school committee may, after consultation with the state board of education, make such other arrangement as may best carry out the purposes of this act. Each school physician shall make a medical examination and diagnosis of all children referred to him for that purpose, and such further examinations of pupils, teachers, and janitors, and of the school buildings, as in his opinion the protection of the health of the pupils may require, and shall report the result of such examinations to the head of the school.

SECTION 2. The school committee of every town and of every city except Boston shall require every teacher to report each morning to the head of the school the case of every child belonging in his room who shows signs of being in ill health, or of suffering from infectious or contagious disease, and of every child returning to school without a certificate from the board of health after absence for unknown cause or on account of illness. The head of the school, upon receiving such report, shall as soon as possible notify the school physician and refer to him all such cases for examination; and shall cause notice of the disease, if any, from which any child is found to be suffering to be sent to his parent or guardian, unless the school committee shall make some other provision for the notification of the school physician, whether through the superintendent of schools or otherwise. Whenever in the opinion of the school physician or of the head of the school a child's condition requires that he should be sent home, and whenever a child shows symptoms of smallpox, scarlet fever, measles, chicken pox, tuberculosis, diphtheria, influenza, tonsillitis, whooping cough, mumps, scabies, or trachoma, the head of the school shall send him home immediately, or as soon as safe and proper conveyance can be found, and in cases of the above specified diseases shall at once notify the board of health.

SECTION 3. The school committee of every city and town shall cause every child in the public schools to be separately and carefully tested and examined at least once in every school year so as to ascertain whether he is suffering from defective sight or hearing or from any other disability or defect tending to prevent his receiving the full benefit of his school work, or requiring a modification of the school work in order to prevent injury to the child or to secure the best educational results. The tests of sight and hearing shall be made by teachers. The committee shall cause notice of any defect or disability requiring treatment to be sent to the parent or guardian of the child, and shall require a physical record of each child to be kept in such form as the state board of education shall prescribe.

SECTION 4. The school committee may employ such nurses or other persons as it deems necessary and desirable to supplement and follow up the precautions required by this act.

SECTION 5. The state board of education shall, after consultation with the state board of health, prescribe and furnish to school committees suitable rules of instruction, test-cards, blanks, rec-

ord books and other useful appliances for carrying out the purposes of this act, and shall provide for pupils in the normal schools instruction and practice in the best methods of testing the sight and hearing of children. The board of education may expend during the year nineteen hundred and six a sum not greater than three thousand dollars, and annually thereafter a sum not greater than one thousand dollars for the purpose of supplying the material required by this act.

**Medical
Inspection
and the Public
School Nurse.**

New York, Baltimore, Philadelphia, Los Angeles, Cleveland, Boston and Grand Rapids have nurses in some of their schools. Washington, Rochester, Detroit, Buffalo and St. Louis are advocating a similar service for the school children.

The gospel of "showing how" has been the most effective weapon in all civic work. The demonstration of the work of the public school nurse has been triumphant wherever it has been made. It has gone to show that medical inspection and the school nurse should hereafter be regarded as two parts of a whole, and should be introduced simultaneously into the schools of at least our larger communities, where the evils of overcrowding and great poverty exist. To further its introduction the first impetus may be given by any group of representative citizens, public meetings held and public officials assured of popular support. This done, the control lies best in the hands of the local health board or academy of medicine working in harmony with the board of education.

If the nurse is appointed she should be given practical work to do, as this is what she is trained for, and this is what tells. The London county council, in taking away the nurses' practical duties of binding, bandaging, cleaning, dressing, and personally attending the cases, have taken from their nurses the precise work which they went into the schools to do, which they are trained for, and which gives results. It seems almost as if the council was joking, or performing an extravaganza. The practical work of the nurse in the school, and her practical oversight and actual handling of the children in their homes, is the gist and kernel of public school nursing. This has been brilliantly proved by the work in New York, Philadelphia and Baltimore. A danger that threatens good public school nursing is that there is

always a tendency among men to so order the routine of a woman's work as to take all close personal detail out of it and make it an example of red tape and officialism.

**The Settlement
in Visiting
Nursing.**

The adoption of settlement methods by groups of nurses intent on bringing their services to the poor is a new thing in the history of visiting nursing,—unless, indeed, it had a parallel in the early Benedictine monasteries of the years 500-1000 A.D., where every form of social and co-operative activity was carried on. The nurses' settlement movement is interesting and significant, because it gives the opportunity of spontaneous expression in work to an army of workers hitherto kept passive in bands of strictest control. Just how far the vigorous life of the social settlement can be combined with nursing is a question for each group to settle for itself, but without a doubt the elastic, simple and democratic foundation of the settlement will be good for the future of visiting nursing as it has been good for other civic movements.¹

**Visiting
Nursing and
the Tuberculosis
Movement.**

Considerable originality has been displayed by the Visiting Nurse Association of Cleveland, in making itself the strongest ally of the local anti-tuberculosis movement. In the summer of 1904, one of its staff of ten nurses was assigned for investigative work in the homes of the poor consumptives of the city. This nurse was provided with a list of names furnished by hospitals, dispensaries and insurance societies. A month later a tuberculosis dispensary was opened in the Western Reserve College building. Here a new department has recently been opened for the examination of all children whom the nurse finds in homes where there is

¹ In this connection, it is interesting to note that residents of nurses' settlements are at present engaged in pieces of historical writing calculated to give in permanent form an interpretation of the part played by the nurse in social progress. Miss Waters is preparing a history of visiting nursing, and Miss Dock, in collaboration with Miss Nutting, one of nursing in general. There are several general nursing periodicals of high standing, and current chronicles of the work of visiting nurses appear in the *Quarterly* of the Queens Jubilee Institute, England, and the *Visiting Nurse Quarterly Magazine*, edited by Miss Fulmer, of Chicago. —Ed.]

tuberculosis. This children's clinic is held on Saturday afternoons, is largely attended and has developed some extraordinary facts relative to the frequency of tuberculosis in apparently healthy children. At present the Visiting Nurse Association and Tuberculosis League are trying to organize some definite plan by which the children from homes where there is tuberculosis can be trained in out of door occupations.

**Mayor Weaver
and the
Philadelphia
Conference.**

Mayor John Weaver of Philadelphia, has accepted the invitation of the National Conference to deliver an address of welcome at the opening session of the Philadelphia meeting on the evening of May 9. Ex-president Grover Cleveland and Talcott Williams of the *Philadelphia Press* are also expected to speak in addition to the annual address of the president of the conference.

**The Movement
in the Interest
of the Blind.**

The movement for a more adequate meeting of the needs of the adult blind met with signal recognition from the public last week, when Samuel M. Clemens and Joseph H. Choate addressed a great gathering at the Waldorf Astoria, New York. The meeting was held by the New York Association for Promoting the Interests of the Blind and resulted in putting its work on a financial footing. Announcement was made of the opening of an experimental industrial center. Charles F. F. Campbell of the Massachusetts association, described the progress in the treatment of the blind and a letter was read from Helen Keller. This letter, marvellous in its sympathetic interpretation of the life of the blind, will be published in a later issue.

**President
Roosevelt, Ex-
President Cleve-
land and the
Tuberculosis
Movement.**

At the last meeting of the Board of Directors of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, President Roosevelt and Ex-President Cleveland were elected honorary vice-presidents of the association and both have accepted office.

Real Probation and its Opponents¹

Probably it would be too much to expect that magistrates, whose power of appointment is to be taken away by a proposed law, and societies, whose agents would not be permitted to continue to do probation work except on condition of official appointment, should give a public spirited endorsement to the measure which thus limits their respective powers; and therefore, however disappointing it may be to find certain magistrates, and humane societies in opposition to the Page-Cox bills, embodying the recommendations of the New York State Probation Commission, this opposition is after all what was to have been expected. No effective legislation could have been proposed which would not have encountered the opposition of the parties in interest.

Nevertheless the tremendous fury with which the representative of the New York Board of City Magistrates of the first division assailed the commission and its bills at a hearing at Albany last week, and the heavy batteries of constitutional and legal arguments brought to bear

¹Those who spoke against the bills at either Assembly or Senate hearings were Mr. Hughes, whose wife is probatory officer in the Coney Island Magistrates' Court; Dr. W. O. Stillman, of the Mohawk and Hudson River Humane Society, Albany, N. Y.; Judge Thomas Murphy, Judge of the Juvenile Court, Buffalo, N. Y.; Judge Stevens, special county Judge of Monroe County; Magistrate Wable, of the Board of City Magistrates, New York City; Judge Wilkin, of the Children's Court of Brooklyn; Judge Olmsted, of the Court of Special Sessions, Manhattan; John D. Lindsey, of the Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children.

Those who have appeared in support of the bill were: Martin McDonough, a Catholic probationary officer of the Buffalo Juvenile Court; F. C. Gratiwick, of the same court; Patrick Mallon, a Catholic probationary officer of the Brooklyn Juvenile Court; Mrs. Charles H. Israels, representing the New York Branch of the National Council of Jewish Women, which maintains a probationary officer in the magistrates' court in New York; Gaylord S. White and Mornay Williams, representing all the settlements in New York city; Edward T. Devine, representing the Charity Organization Society; William H. Allen, representing the N. Y. Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor; William C. Osborn, representing the Children's Aid Society; D. Van Vleck, representing the Social Reform Club of Brooklyn; and the following members of the Probation Commission: Mrs. Tunis G. Bergen, a volunteer probation officer, Brooklyn; Mrs. W. W. Armstrong, a volunteer probation officer, Rochester; Roger P. Clark, District Attorney, Binghamton; Frederick Almy, a volunteer probation officer, Buffalo; Dr. Charles F. McKenna, of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, New York; Dr. Samuel J. Barrows, of the Prison Association, New York; Dennis McCarthy, member of the State Board of Charities, Syracuse; Homer Folks, chairman of the Probation Commission, and Charles E. Rushmore, counsel.

from the Court of Special Sessions would seem to have overshot the mark. The confident assurance with which the judges defended the chaotic, haphazard and inefficient schemes of probation which now prevail generally in the various communities of New York where any beginnings at all have been made, when scrutinized in the light of the sworn testimony taken by the commission, becomes a little absurd. It would appear that the men and women of this commission who have given several months of hard work to the subject, and who have listened patiently to the suggestions of the very men who appeared at the hearing, are simply bent on destroying an existing ideal system; that they are hard-hearted theorists, enemies of the children and of the first offenders among convicted adults for whose sake they were commissioned to work, persons with private axes to grind, and with friends to foist into salaried office; that their chief concern has been to embarrass the courts in the discharge of their duties and prevent those who have once gone astray from having another chance, or at least that this is the net result of their labors.

For these extraordinary suggestions and charges we are indebted to the speakers in opposition to the probation bill. If they seem preposterous and even utterly inconceivable we cannot help it. Such are the arguments and such is the character of the opposition.

How different is the actual situation. The plan which the report recommends and which the legislature is considering does transfer the appointment of the probation agents from the judges to a municipal commission—a commission which is to be appointed, so far as New York city and Buffalo are concerned, by the same power which appoints the magistrates themselves, viz., the mayor of the city. Whether they are or are not to be appointed from an eligible list is to be determined by the Civil Service Commissions, but if so appointed the examiners must give oral as well as written examination, and experience and personal qualities are to be taken into account.

Those who have been accustomed to sneer at the merit system, whether in

charitable or penal institutions or elsewhere, will, of course, object to any interference with the existing power of the magistrates to appoint whom they please, and to discharge when they like; but it is difficult to see why any others than straight-out opponents of the merit system should object to the plan which the commission has proposed.

Magistrate Wahle complained that the bills do not really deal with the subject of probation, or give any assistance to the perplexed and conscientious judges who are desirous of making further or better use of the system. It is true that the bill does not undertake to prescribe in minute detail the manner in which probation shall be applied, and this is one of its chief merits. What it does is to create a municipal commission, which under the general supervision of state authority shall devote itself to the study of details and to the giving to magistrates and probation officers precisely the assistance which the magistrate has sought in vain, and should not have expected to find in the bill.

The trouble with the opponents of this bill is that they do not take probation seriously. They pay it the tribute of lip service, but when it is proposed that it shall be applied to all offenders who are not sent to prison; that it shall be applied for a period long enough to produce some results—not less than three months in case of misdemeanors and one year in case of felonies; that there shall be at least one salaried chief probation officer for adults and one for children; and that in every case there shall be at least one definite report to the court as to whether the conduct of the offender, whose sentence has been suspended is satisfactory, there is at once great agitation and the cry is raised that “red tape” is to be substituted for the loving, humane and sympathetic attitude which judges and officers now display.

The fact is that unless probation is taken more seriously, unless it is done by competent officers selected for this purpose, after having been shown by reasonable tests to be fitted for it and held to strict responsibility for the manner in which they do their work, the whole attempt to develop an effective substitute

for incarceration will be discredited, and possibly abandoned. It is already discredited by the manner in which some of the volunteer probation officers and the majority of the policemen assigned as probation officers are performing. For the evidence that this is the case it is only necessary to read the commission's report. It is there shown that disorderly women who have been convicted in court and placed on probation are continuing without the slightest interference or remonstrance the manner of life which led to their conviction. It is shown that policemen who are supposed to be giving their entire time to probation have practically no offenders to look after; and that when offenders are nominally in their charge the probation officers often know nothing whatever about what they are doing, or whether the conditions under which sentence was suspended are being complied with.

The fact that the commission was able to say that there are a few police probation officers to whom these criticisms do not apply was seized upon by the magistrate who spoke at the hearing as evidence that policemen ought not to be excluded from appointment as probation officers; but the conclusion that members of the regular police force should not be made probation officers, except, of course, in case they resign from the police force and take their chance with other candidates, is entirely sound and justified by the testimony of the magistrates and police probation officers themselves.

Judge Olmsted of the Court of Special Sessions put forward the extraordinary proposition that there is no constitutional method by which the probation system may be applied to children. His argument was that children cannot be removed from the custody of adults unless the latter have been proven to be unfit guardians, and that, on the other hand, if left with their parents children must be in their exclusive custody and cannot be legally placed under the supervision of a probation officer. Senator Armstrong of the Judiciary Committee, who has given much personal attention to the subject of probation, was quick to see that if this position is sound it implies not only that children may not be placed under probation, but that they cannot be committed

to reformatories or in fact punished in any other way. If a boy who steals apples, or even one who commits murder, cannot be removed from the custody of his parents until the latter have been proven to be unfit guardians, it would appear that all that any vicious criminal of tender years needs to do is to provide himself with parents of unimpeachable character. He may then commit any crime in the calendar and remain beyond the reach of the courts. It may plausibly be urged that the mere commitment of a crime by a minor is in itself evidence that the parents are unfit guardians, but this is a somewhat severe test which most judges would hesitate to apply, and in any event, if it justifies imprisonment it digs the ground from under Judge Olmsted's contention in regard to probation, since the less is certainly included in the greater, and the power to remove and incarcerate in a reformatory clearly implies the lesser power of leaving the child with its parents under conditions of supervision authorized by the legislature.

If the decision of the Supreme Court of Illinois, upon which Judge Olmsted relies for his contention of what probation for children implies, really establishes that proposition, it is important that this fact should be ascertained as quickly as possible in order that all its implications may be understood. It should not be overlooked, however, that the Illinois case involved the validity of a commitment to an institution and not the legality of probation. It is true that it is the present practice in New York city practically to destroy parental authority in every case in which children are removed from their homes, and the Illinois decision is based upon the same idea. But both the New York practice and the Illinois have been severely criticised.

While not desirous at this time of entering into an extended legal argument, we venture to express the opinion that Judge Olmsted is wrong, and that the higher courts will sustain the statutes which are now in force in this state explicitly providing for placing children on probation, and the present proposed legislation which, so far as this subject is concerned, simply continues and reenacts the present statutes.

Popular Value of A Supreme Court Decision

Graham Taylor

The United States Supreme Court decision on the Chicago traction question is as great in its spirit as in its consequences. Local though the case is, the issues involved are country-wide. The hundred or more millions of dollars at stake in the Chicago properties are a small part of the incalculable values involved in the issues arising everywhere between public service corporations and American communities. But greater still are the moral effects of this far-reaching decision. It is demonstrating the truths of Mazzini's assertion that every economic and industrial issue is in the last analysis a moral and religious issue. The people's control of public utilities is rapidly becoming a moral question of national magnitude in this and every other country. No mere economic issue has ever taken such hold upon the conscience and will of the people. The rights and wrongs of the ownership of public utilities powerfully and persistently appeal to their moral sense.

In many localities as in Chicago, the people are not responsible for raising this issue or for dragging it into city and state politics. Public service corporations force the issue upon the people's conscience and political action by prolonged legislative and political corruption. The legislation which gave rise to the litigation now finally decided by the supreme court, is perhaps the most significant case in point that could be cited. It was the so-called "ninety-nine year act" ostensibly granting franchise rights to the traction companies in the streets of Chicago for a century. It was passed thirty-eight years ago over the governor's veto and against the indignant protest of the citizens by a legislature whose bribery no one denies. The preposterous claim of the companies to the extension of their alleged rights for sixty-one years was stoutly resisted by the city at the expiration of some of the franchises involved. The decision of the court of last appeal concedes the right of the companies to exist for the balance of the ninety-nine years for which they were

chartered by the act, but denies that this right of existence carried with it any claim to franchises beyond the period for which they were granted by the city council of Chicago. The framers of the act relied upon the astute ambiguity of its language to cover from public notice this very point. Untold good has been done throughout the length and breadth of the land by a single sentence of the decision. Upon the walls of every state house, city council chamber and town hall should this sentence of the supreme court be inscribed—

"Corporate privileges can only be held to be granted as against public rights when conferred in plain and explicit terms."

It is burning itself into the people's memory in letters of light.

Bad laws are and will be made. The legislature may be closed to any appeal for redress. But so long as the courts are open, this decision shows that a day of reckoning is ever at hand. Such an unambiguous judgment makes short work of the ambiguous phrase and brands the tricksters who framed it as mean, dishonest and disloyal as they were in fact.

It proves moreover that there are vested rights as surely as there are vested interests. There are not a few who act as if this were not so, while the many fear their rights have been forgotten by those to whose protection they are officially intrusted. Every now and then the multitudes get discouraged over the law's delays or technicalities, or worse. The suspicion spreads that property weighs more than persons, money than men, the privileged few than the many. The extreme radicals always take advantage of such an attitude to deepen the distrust of good and sincere men, by unjustly indiscriminate abuse of all law and the whole judiciary. While only the minorities are ever influenced by such a partial view of the situation, far more at least entertain the doubt of having justice done by the courts than is generally supposed. But such a decision as this brushes their distrust away like a cobweb blown off by the fresh breeze at sunrise.

The consideration of the court in pub-

lishing the synopsis of its holding in advance of handing down the full decision will also have an effect upon the people of Chicago. The near approach of impending election, with its referendum vote on the traction issue might by some have been suspected to be the very occasion for delaying any such announcement. But all such suspicion is obliterated by the fact that irrespective of whatever views they may have had on the issue of municipal ownership, these judges were big and loyal enough men to recognize the people's right to know the facts of a situation which they are authorized by law to settle by their votes. That the highest court of the land has at last affirmed and confirmed what the common sense and conscience of the people all along have claimed to be the city's rights, will give greater confidence in the instinctive justice of the popular judgment. Referendum voting within reasonable limits will therefore entrench itself more deeply than ever, as the settled policy of the state, and through it democracy will come to its own.

As the Nurse Sees It

The watchword of to-day is prevention, and this should be the motto of every nurse who enters a home—no matter whether rich or poor—on her intimate and responsible mission.

That form of satisfaction or happiness which once sprang from ameliorative labors has withered to the core since the clear vision has arisen of what this world might be in the one matter of health alone, the basic right of every creature, under conditions of social justice.

The district or visiting nurse in large cities feels this keenly. After the first zeal of interest in novel experiences, she grows sick at heart over remediable but unremedied conditions,—preventible but unprevented diseases,—unnecessary and gratuitously inflicted misery.

It is true that she can often do wonders which go far toward consoling and encouraging her. She can often transform a home,—and this is especially true when her patients *have* homes, and not only holes or dens—lift up a sunken family, and bring the light of sanitary knowl-

edge where all was dark. It is also no doubt true, as Charles Booth says, that where she has entered the standard of living never afterwards falls quite as low as it was before.

But there are leaden drags to her work, and that is a cheap and shoddy form of selfish optimism which hails the nurse as a bridge between the rich and poor, as a sop thrown from capital to labor;—or which regards all the troubles of the poor as of self-made origin and cheerfully believes that with a few lessons about germs, boiled water and sterilized milk the dwellings of poverty can be transformed under the nurse's hand into happy little bowers of thrift and neatness.

It is true that the poor are, perhaps, on the whole more teachable and responsive than the rich; that they are on the whole no more afraid of night air; that their mistakes in dietetics are only mistakes in degree, not in kind, from those of opulent tables; and they are beyond a doubt more grateful for services. Nevertheless the nurse meets her barriers. She cannot change the long, hard, working hours of the delicate girl, or bring wholesome conditions into the stifling work-rooms where health is parted with piecemeal,—each day a little,—or carry the baby's cradle out of the constant steam of dirty boiling clothes, or alter the interest-bearing dwellings, often no more intelligently planned from the standpoint of sanitary science than the caves of a cliff-dweller; and, most poignant of all, she cannot re-inforce the cruelly inadequate wage which is so often the primary and glaring cause of poverty.

**The Nurse
Must
Do Nursing.**

The leading principle in visiting nursing is that the nurse should actually nurse.

This is not always done.

Miss Sayles, in a recent article in the *Outlook* which has aroused much interest, was unfortunate in the terms "old," and "new," systems, as applied to nurses who did not and nurses who did nurse. But it would perhaps have been hard to choose terms in brief which were also qualified. The fact remains that there are some systems of district nursing where the nurse does not really nurse, but only visits and advises; in this there is no

reference to the tuberculosis work, but to general cases. One or two examples will show the difference—whether one is old or the other new does not matter. Let us say an "old" nurse found a family in a mean dwelling, where a child lay ill and undressed upon the bed. The two parents and three willing but ineffective neighbors struggled with a frightful mess of dirty poultice in a pail. Nervous and perspiring they turned as the nurse entered and said, "I will make that for you." It was done and their anxiety turned to joy and gratitude. "There was a nurse here," they said; "but she did not show us how." "What did she do for the sick child?" "Oh, she measured the heat with a little glass, and said to make a poultice." This is a useless and absurd method of visiting nursing.

* * *

Another—let us say a "new" nurse had responded to a call from a solicitous neighbor for a sick friend. The poor woman did not seem very ill, but was most uncomfortable from lack of bathing, dirty and tumbled bed, damp and mussed gown. A nice woman, and when well she kept herself scrupulously clean. She had called a physician, and had medicine from the dispensary. Most grateful was she for the bed-bath, the clean chemise, the fresh sheets; she had them all, but had not been able to put them on. Her tangled hair—how good to get it combed. A milk-punch given her and a cup of broth put to infuse on the stove, the room swept and brushed,—while busy with these duties the nurse learned of the temporary problems of the children and house, the small anxieties which harassed the sick mother;—the nurse's resources saw a quick and easy way to arrange them all. As she turned aside to replace her wraps, the door opened and a trim and alert young nurse in uniform walked in, paid no attention to the other, but quickly entered the sick room, and without a word except a pleasant greeting, took the sick woman's pulse, temperature, and respiration, skilfully made up a mustard paste, applied it to the patient's chest, and as alertly turned to go. No questioning of personal interest, or recognition of any human need. The other spoke to her:

"You are a nurse; from whom do you come?"

"From the —— Dispensary."

"Do you not give your patients baths or make their beds, or inquire whether they need any kind of help?"

"Oh, no, I am not supposed to do any of those things. I am only allowed strictly to carry out the doctor's orders."

"Would the doctor not expect you to do those things?"

"No, indeed, we would not have time for that; the neighbors must attend to it."

The danger of all well-systematized work is that it may become mechanical, and the examples cited show how an automatic routine may creep into visiting nursing. When this occurs, there remains indeed an exterior form which looks well, which is capable of being described admirably in print, and which furnishes most gratifying figures for published reports and statistics—but within it is hollow; what appears to be bread is really a stone. Part of this danger arises from American haste and hustle, but this is the smallest cause. There is, if it is inquired into, abundant proof that this devitalized variety of work arises from the love of large figures,—of high-sounding statistics, and impressive reports. It is a pity that the money-giving public must so often be cajoled and coaxed by the sound of large numbers of visits. Every nurse knows that in proportion as her list of visits for the day increases, her real nursing decreases.

It would be well if every one who gives money for district nursing work would make themselves familiar with the conditions under which the work is done. "To give money is good," said Vincent de Paul, "but we do not really know how to serve the poor until we visit them."

A feature of peculiar delicacy and importance in the ethics of the district nurse's work is the enlarged ethical concept which she must recognize as her professional obligation. This is also a feature of peculiar delicacy for a nurse to discuss, as it involves an appearance of heresy, or at least of ungracious criticism.

Nevertheless, it must be clearly stated

that that entire and unquestioning subordination of the nurse to the physician which is proper and necessary in hospital work must be modified in district nursing accordingly as the social and economic needs of the patients complicate the situation, or as a small personal loyalty comes into conflict with the larger loyalty of responsibility to a family, or to a group of persons, or to the public. Let it also be clearly understood that no relaxation of the strict subordination and obedience required by professional ethics in the giving and carrying out of orders for the treatment of the sick person is to be thought of. Here the strictest hospital discipline may be maintained. The more stringent the understanding that the nurse may not prescribe, or delay in calling a physician if none be present, the better; for the best of nurses will make mistakes if allowed to step over this line. But the unessential demands of etiquette must not interfere with the claims of essential ethical obligation.

It so happens that the sick poor are often attended, in large cities, by a class of nurses above, and of physicians below, the average. It results that the nurse,—whose duty in district work it is to consider the family as a whole—the fundamental feature of visiting and friendly nursing,—must sometimes be animated by a purpose quite the opposite of that held by the medical attendant, who seldom considers the whole family in all its bearings, but more often than not, considers only the patient from the sole standpoint of therapeutics. This is illustrated by the incident of a family living in two rooms, where three typhoid cases offered the energetic young doctor some good subjects which he was unwilling to give up, but where the nurse, because all of the pillows and most of the bedding had been pawned and destitution and dependence were on the way, advised hospital rather than throw the weight of support on a charitable society, or allow the patients to suffer deprivation. Here, her direct opposition to the physician was a defiance of all etiquette, but in accordance with common sense and practical good management. This choice must be made sometimes.

Strange complications sometimes arise, too, in weighing the claims of loyalty to physician individual, and physicians corporate. A sad case was that of the district nurse who found a smallpox patient and reported to the physician under whom she was working. He declined considering the case smallpox and reported it no further. When her conscience, after twenty-four hours, drove her to call the board of health, she received severe professional reprimands from two sides,—from one, because she reported,—from the other, because she should have reported sooner!

**The Rights
of the
Patient.**

It was the fundamental principle of William Rathbone and the founders of district nursing that the nurse should not be primarily for the convenience of the physician but should be for the benefit of the patient.

Humanity and democracy both agree that the poorest patient shall have the same right to call a nurse, and to keep her even if the physician changes or leaves the case or is dismissed, that the richest patient has. No one disputes this right of the wealthy patient. Nor should the right of the poor in this regard be questioned. Yet there are strict disciplinarians who would deny the poor patient this right, and forbid the district nurse's services being called for except on the order of the physician. And more than this, who would decree that, if for any reason the physician in charge gave up the case, the nurse must also leave it. Such a policy would completely reverse the purpose of the humane Rathbone, and would make the nurse simply an assistant to the physician instead of a minister to the patient.

In every system of visiting nursing, the right to ask for a nurse should be unrestricted. If not suitable, the case need not be taken. The simplest practical proof of the correctness of this argument is, that while physicians do as a rule send in all the best cases (e. g., the most acute), they rarely call for a nurse for chronics; and it is precisely the poor, old, forgotten, neglected chronic cases to whom the visiting nurse ought to be the greatest blessing.

The Rise of District Nursing in England

The Work, Organization and Extent of the Queen Victoria's
Jubilee Institute for Nurses

Amy Hughes

General Superintendent Queen Victoria's Jubilee Institute for Nurses

The first effort to bring skilled nursing within reach of the poor in their own homes in England was made by the Society of St. John's House, founded in 1848 with the design "of improving the qualifications and raising the character of nurses for the sick in hospitals, among the poor in their own homes, and in private families."

Owing to the lack of nurse training schools in those days the practical instruction of these nurses was largely obtained among the poor in their own homes. Organized district nursing as now understood dates from 1859-1862, during which time it was systematically established in Liverpool by the late William Rathbone. At first the nurses were placed separately in given districts, but as the work increased, they were grouped in homes under fully trained superintendents.

The value of this change made itself immediately manifest in the improved standard of work and discipline among the nurses, as well as an increased zeal and *esprit de corps*. The example set in Liverpool was quickly followed in other places. The first society organized for the sole benefit of the sick poor in London was the East London Nursing Society in 1868. The establishment of the Metropolitan and National Nursing Association (now the Metropolitan Nursing Association) in 1874 raised the whole standard of district nursing by demanding higher social and educational qualifications in the nurses employed.

The Rural Nursing Association was started in the western Midlands to provide nurses and midwives for the country districts. Scotland and Ireland had also established homes in Glasgow and Dub-



lin, and many centers were springing up in England until the gracious act of her late majesty, Queen Victoria, in 1887, elevated district nursing from the sphere of individual effort to the position of a great national institution.

Queen Victoria's Jubilee Institute for Nurses was incorporated by royal charter in September, 1889, and was endowed by the queen with £70,000, the balance of the offering of the women of Great Britain and Ireland on the occasion of the celebration of the fiftieth year of her reign.

By the charter, the institute was connected with the ancient foundation of St. Katharine's Royal Hospital. This is a royal religious foundation, originally established near the Tower of London, on the site now occupied by the St. Katharine's Docks. It was founded by Queen Matilda, the wife of Stephen, in 1148, with the original intention of securing repose for the souls of her two little children. In 1273 it was chartered by Queen Eleanor, the widow of Henry III, and again in 1351 by Philippa, Queen of Edward III. The visitation of the sick and infirm in the precincts of the hospital was among the duties enjoined upon the brothers and sisters. The queens of England have always been the patrons of St. Katharine's Hospital from the time of Queen Matilda to the present date. The offices of the Queen's Institute were within the precincts of St. Katharine's until 1903, when, in consequence of the great increase of the work, the quarters available became too limited, and they were moved to larger premises at 120 Victoria street.

**Organization
and
Purposes.**

The Queen's Institute is governed by a council nominated by her majesty the queen, with the approval of his majesty the king. Twenty-four members of this council are appointed directly by the queen; the remainder are recommended by the council and bodies representative of nursing interests throughout the country. There is a president of the council, three trustees nominated by her majesty, a vice-president, two honorary secretaries and an honorary treasurer.

The work in England, Wales and Ireland is directly under the central council; the Scottish council has from the outset accepted the management and responsibility of the work of the institute in Scotland.¹ The objects of the institute are stated in the charter to be "the training, support and maintenance of women to act as nurses for the sick poor, and the establishment (if thought proper) of a home or homes for such nurses, and generally the promotion and provision of improved means for nursing the sick poor." The provisional committee appointed by the queen to give effect to her wishes decided, with her approval, to adopt as the institute's particular work the larger development of district nursing, by providing trained nurses for the sick poor in their own homes.

Soon after the founding of the Queen's Institute a movement was started to systematize district nursing in rural districts, which resulted in the formation of county nursing associations affiliated with the institute under certain conditions. Their objects are:

1. To promote local interest in the work of providing trained nurses and midwives for the sick poor in their own homes throughout the county.

2. To raise funds locally for the training and support of such nurses within the county.

3. To establish nursing centers as far as may be throughout the county.

4. To seek out and train suitable women in accordance with the regulations of the Queen's Institute.

**Special
Training
and Expert
Supervision.**

The majority of previously existing district nursing associations have accepted conditions of affiliation with the Queen's Institute, which is now the largest existing organization of district nursing, and has accumulated a wide experience of the work in all parts of the country, and under all conditions. This experience has led to the establishment of two fundamental principles—special training of its nurses, and expert supervision of their work. It was the express wish of her late majesty that only hospital-trained nurses should be entered on the roll of queen's nurses, "in order that skilled nursing may be within reach of the poorest of my people." Queen's nurses are carefully chosen women, who hold the certificate of a hospital approved by the institute¹ and have received six months' training under the superintendent of an affiliated district home. They there are taught to adapt their nursing knowledge to the circumstances of the patients and to make the best of unfavorable surroundings and limited appliances.

Many queen's nurses are also midwives, especially in country districts, and all are instructed in monthly nursing. There is a system of inspection by expert queen's nurses. This is often looked upon at first with suspicion as savoring of interference, but such fears soon prove to be groundless. There is no interference with local effort, no curtailing of personal energy, but simply a regular visitation of every affiliated association from the city with its forty to fifty nurses and their superintendents in various homes, to the solitary nurse in the remoteness of the country. Each association keeps its reports, etc.,

¹Queen Victoria's endowment brings in an income of £2,100, but this very soon became inadequate to the needs of the institute. The generosity of a few friends, who placed the sum of £11,000 at the disposal of the council, enabled all demands to be met until 1897, the sixtieth anniversary of the queen's accession, when the Queen's Commemoration Fund raised a sum of £48,000 for the extension of the work of the institute. £19,000 then collected in Ireland was invested for the work in that country, and £11,000 collected in Scotland, was returned to the Scottish council. A widespread appeal for annual subscriptions followed, resulting in an increase of about £2,000 a year to the income of the institute. In 1901 the Women's Memorial to Queen Victoria was inaugurated to further endow the Queen's Institute, and, in spite of many disadvantages at that time, due to the war and other causes, the sum of £84,000 was raised by 1903. £6,000 of this sum was raised in Ireland, and the income of this has been devoted to the work in that country under Lady Dudley's Fund for the Establishment of District Nurses in the poorest parts of Ireland. The £12,000 raised in Scotland is in the hands of the Scottish council.

[¹A three years' training is required.—Ed.]

on the same lines, and from each the same standard of work is required. The inspector comes as a friend alike to the nurse and the committee, visiting the cases, seeing the books, and helping, by her experience and advice, to smooth over any little difficulties that may arise. It is the evenness of the work thus obtained that is making it a success by securing a uniform standard.

**Neither Almon-
ers nor
Missioners.**

Two other principles of the institute are:

1. That the nurses shall not be almoners. Their work is nursing and nursing only, though they are encouraged to bring deserving cases to the notice of the proper local authorities, and in every way thus to secure necessary sick comforts for their patients.

2. That the nurses shall never interfere with the religious views of their patients or their friends.

These two rules lift the work of queen's nurses above suspicion of almsgiving and proselyting. At the same time, the nurses are left free to bring their patients in touch with the local agencies that make for good. They must work only for affiliated associations and their work is regulated by the committee who engage them and are their employers, subject to the above principles being maintained.

A nurse working alone in a small town or country district is responsible to the committee of the association, and reports to them at their monthly meetings on her work. It is usual for the secretary to see the nurse at least once a week, and very frequently she is accompanied by others of the committee in turn. When two or more nurses are employed, the senior is responsible for the work to the committee, and when more than four, she is considered a superintendent, frequently training her own nurses and not undertaking a district herself.

In large towns, where the distances are so great that, however central the home may be, it is not possible for nurses resident there to carry on the work efficiently in the outlying districts, a nurse is frequently established in lodgings in the district, or a small branch home is started to accommodate three or four nurses. In such cases the nurses remain under the supervision of the superintendent of the central home.

Co-operative Features.

There are various methods of raising funds to support the work. It depends on the conditions of labor in the district as to which method should be regarded as the mainstay of the association. In towns (large and small) with a mixed population without uniform employment, annual subscriptions and donations from all classes are the chief sources of income. Patients are encouraged to give according to their means, and efforts made to secure small subscriptions from all trades people, and wage earners, by house to house collections. A systematic collection by collectors, to each of whom a few streets or a ward of a town is allotted, gives substantial results. All churches and chapels should be asked to devote the collections on at least one Sunday in the year to the nursing fund. A saving in the expenses of the association can be effected if tram and railway companies will give free passes on the cars and railways for the nurses. Such passes are always a great boon to the nurses personally.

In many mining, colliery and manufacturing centers, where there is a uniform level of work and wages, it is possible to support an association by the men employed in the various industries agreeing to the deduction of a certain sum, $\frac{1}{2}$ d, 1d, or $1\frac{1}{2}$ d weekly, fortnightly or monthly from their wages. Such a system with representatives of the various trades on the committee works well, and there is more than one instance of an association which is thus almost self-supporting.

In small country towns of a population of less than 10,000, and in rural districts it is advisable, if possible, to place the scheme on a provident basis, with a scale of contributions suitable to all classes. Such a system entitles the subscribers of the fixed amounts to the services of the nurse for themselves and their families; non-subscribers may obtain her services at a higher rate, while cases in receipt of outdoor relief are provided for by a grant from the guardians. It is not always possible to make such an association entirely self-supporting, and the funds may need supplementing by annual subscriptions and donations from the wealthier residents, by church collections,

and the other sources suggested for urban districts.

It is better that an association should depend for its funds on the co-operation of all in the district rather than on one or two generous donors, as, should their contributions be unavoidably lessened or withdrawn, the association probably has to be given up; and those who have come to depend on the nurses' services suffer a great deprivation.

The total number of associations affiliated with the Queen's Institute is now 698, and 12 county associations; the number of nurses that have been placed on the Queen's roll is some 2,600, of which about 1,500 are now working.

Affiliation secures to the locality the services of a well-trained nurse capable of rendering assistance in every kind of illness. She will know what she may and what she may not do. She will not overstep the line between the doctor's and the nurse's work. Her hospital training will not only have given her varied and exceptional experience, but will have taught her discipline and discretion. Her district training will have taught her how to make the best of the limited appliances available in a poor home. Being able to recognize infectious disease in its early stages, and knowing what authorities should be communicated with, she will often be able to check the spread of infection.

Valuable lives are saved, suffering is alleviated, and illness not infrequently shortened. By proper attention to the doctor's orders, the bread-winner of the family, it may be, is spared months of tedious sickness, or a mother saved from the life-long effects of ignorance and neglect.

The services of a Queen's nurse frequently render it possible for cases to be treated at home which would otherwise have to go to a hospital, and many a home has thus been kept together, when otherwise the alternative would have been the workhouse.

The poor learn how the sick should be nursed. They become acquainted with simple sanitary precautions against the spread of disease, they gain some knowledge of elementary sick cooking, mothers are taught the proper management of infants and children, and practical lessons in cleanliness—new and extraordinary to many—are silently instilled, and an example set which is not forgotten when the work of the nurse ceases.

The moral influence of these visits of trained and devoted women to the homes of the poor cannot be over-estimated. They are daily proving the truth of Miss Florence Nightingale's farseeing advice at the outset of the whole movement. "To succeed, district nurses must also be 'health-missioners'—they must nurse the homes as well as the people."

The Rise, Progress and Extent of Visiting Nursing in the United States

Ysabella Waters, R. N.

Henry Street Settlement, New York

This brief history of visiting nursing in America will not attempt to touch upon the work done by the various sisterhoods, either religious or secular. Suffice it to say that these have been in the field since the earliest colonization times, and they have done much good work.

The first organized work that has been recorded for the care of the sick poor in their homes, is that of the Ladies' Benevolent Society of Charleston, S. C. It

began in the year 1813, after a severe epidemic of yellow fever had left many families in a pitiful condition. The society was incorporated in the following year, with the usual officers, and sixteen ladies were elected annually as a visiting committee. Each visitor had to visit for three months each year, "when and wherever sent for, with propriety, in the wards of the city allotted to them." Nurses were to be provided when necessary, paid for and supervised

by the visitors, but "they could give no money except to eight chronic cases, and no more," the aim of the society being to help people get well. Bed linen was kept, and lent, and "visitors are enjoined to be careful in insisting on a free use of it, and also in having washing done for the sick." The society was undenominational in character, and the funds came from Protestants, Catholics and Jews. One clergyman sent \$70, the proceeds of the sale of his sermon on the "Character of Eve."

Up to 1865, fifty-two years after the society started, there were no changes, and the plan worked extremely well. The war scattered its members, and dissipated its funds. No regular meeting was held for twenty years, yet the society's ministrations never actually ceased. In 1902 it showed its progressive character by employing a trained nurse, and the work is carried on by the most approved plans. So far as I have been able to learn, this is the only visiting nursing association in South Carolina, which is one of only five southern states that send nurses to the sick poor.

In July, 1849, Pastor Fliedner—who started the first nurses' training school in the world, at Kaiserswerth, on the Rhine, in 1836, came to America, bringing with him four German deaconesses. They were some of his own nurses trained in the hospital at Kaiserswerth, and had also received a training in visiting nursing. They went to Pittsburgh, Pa., where the Rev. Dr. W. A. Passavant had a hospital, and deaconess' home ready for dedication. Pastor Fliedner delivered the dedicatory address, leaving the four deaconess nurses in Pittsburgh, to carry on the same good work which they had been doing in Germany.

From
1877 On. The first American organization to systematically send *trained* nurses into the homes of the sick poor, was that of the woman's branch of the New York City Mission, in 1877. This was followed two years later by the Ethical Society of New York city, placing nurses in dispensaries. Both of these organizations still exist, and their nurses—ten of the Mission Society, three of the Ethical Society, are doing active work.

The nurses of the Ethical Society are connected with certain dispensaries, and work with the dispensary doctors, each confining her care to the patients going to the dispensary to which she is attached; her work is purely professional.

In 1883 the New York Ethical Society sent one of its nurses to Chicago to introduce visiting nursing in that city. There, as here, the nurse was connected with a dispensary. The Chicago Ethical Society continued the work for three years, then in 1886 it was given up. Four years later, or in 1890, was started the Visiting Nurse Association of Chicago, which now has a staff of twenty-five nurses. It is managed by a board of directors, is non-sectarian in its work, and co-operates with all the organized charities of the city.

In 1885, Dr. Alfred Worcester, of Waltham, Massachusetts, began in that city to carry out some of the ideas that Pastor Fliedner had inaugurated at Kaiserswerth, fifty years before. Dr. Worcester, however, lacked a hospital. For the first year there was no hospital at all, and all the training was given by the physicians at the bedside of the patients. Later, a small hospital was established in the city, which secures its nursing service by contract with the training school, and the nurses gain in the hospital, a part of their training. A number of graduates of the school are now doing district work in this country and in Canada.

Boston followed in 1886 with its Instructive District Nursing Association, which was incorporated two years later—1888. Here there are fifteen nurses on the staff, and they work in connection with the physicians of the Boston Dispensary, which was established in 1796. Philadelphia's Visiting Nurses' Society was organized almost at the same time. It has a staff of twenty nurses, its work is non-sectarian, and it is supported by voluntary contributions.

The district nursing work of the Nurses' Settlement of New York, corresponds to the visiting nursing associations of other larger cities. It was started in 1893. It is unique, in that its administration is entirely in the hands of the nurse who founded the settlement, with

the assistance of the supervising nurses who are in residence in the settlement, and in that the nurses must live in the districts in which they work. There are twenty-seven nurses on the staff, making it the largest staff of nurses engaged in any single district nursing organization in America. All kinds of cases are taken except contagious diseases. These are cared for by the New York Department of Health, which keeps two and three nurses for this special kind of work, diphtheria, scarlet fever and measles. This department was started in 1903. In November of 1902, the department had taken up a most interesting and valuable work when it established its school nurses, forty-eight being on the staff at the present time, besides the two contagious nurses, making fifty in all. They visit all the schools in Greater New York, attend to the childrens' eyes, and do necessary surgical dressings, inspect most carefully all the children—well and otherwise, and visit in the homes the children who have been excluded for any cause whatever. A detailed account of this work will be found in a separate article in this magazine. There are numerous other smaller groups and single nurses engaged in visiting nursing in New York, and there is a large staff of tuberculosis nurses, but that subject is thoroughly treated in a separate paper in this number.

The work in Baltimore began in 1896, under the name of the Instructive Visiting Nurse Association. The eight nurses, take all kinds of cases, and work in connection with the Associated Charities. They have classes in home nursing for working girls, and mothers' clubs, to whom they also teach hygiene, ventilation and the proper feeding of children.

**First
Municipal
District
Nurses.**

Los Angeles, California, was the first city in the United States to take up municipal district nursing work. In 1898, the city employed one nurse, who lived at the Los Angeles Settlement, and visited the sick poor. Her work also included visits to some of the public schools. In 1904, two years after New York had introduced school nurs-

ing, Los Angeles engaged a school nurse, who now has supervision over all the schools in the city but two. These are taken care of by the settlement nurse.

New York, Los Angeles, Baltimore, Cleveland, Grand Rapids, and Washington now have municipal school nurses. Boston, Chicago, and Orange, N. J., have school nurses, but they are not under municipal control.

**Special Fields
of Work.**

So far, this paper has only touched upon the larger groups of nurses. But the visiting nurse's field is ever widening. For example, she is increasingly found in industrial establishments and department stores. An illustration of the department store work is that done at the John Wanamaker store in New York. Here there is a mutual benefit association for the employees. In 1897, the secretaryship of this association was given to a trained nurse. She visits in the homes, all the employees who are unable to attend to their work, visiting and revisiting as often as necessary, caring for the patients' needs, and seeing that he or she receive each week the sick benefit money.

There is an annual emergency fund of \$1,000 given by the employers, which the nurse can use to supplement the sick fund when necessary, or to send incipient tuberculosis cases to the mountains, to give timely vacations to those who might otherwise break down, and the like. Further there is a small dispensary in the store, where she cares for emergencies of all sorts, either among the employes or patrons while shopping. The store employs between 4,000 and 5,000 people, about two-thirds of whom are young women and girls. The nurse has from the beginning taken the physical health of these under her supervision, but it is in the homes of the employes themselves that she finds the overwhelming proportion of her work. Her calls vary in length, from a short visit to a night long vigil at a crisis.

The National Cash Register Co., of Dayton, Ohio, will probably best illustrate the work of a visiting nurse, connected with a manufacturing establishment. Since 1901, it has employed two

nurses and a physician. The nurses visit the sick in their homes, and attend to accident cases. For such there is a room fitted up with hospital furnishings, that the patients' wounds may be treated with aseptic care. There are also several rest rooms, for both the men and women, where they can go in any slight illness, and a nurse will attend them there. Aside from caring for actual cases of illness the nurses have classes for the employes, whom they instruct in the proper measures to be taken to prevent illness and in caring for others who may be sick. They also give instruction in the principles of healthful living, in matters of diet, exercise, dress, etc. As there are 3,600 men and women employed by the National Cash Register, it can readily be seen that the nurses lead busy and useful lives.

The following table will show the growth of visiting nursing work in the United States, from 1877, to the present time. This includes the work done in Charleston, S. C., which started in 1813, but 1877 was the year when the first trained nurses started in the field:

No. of Associations in the United States	220
No. of different localities having associations	143
No. of nurses in all the associations	537

States Having the Largest Number of Associations.

	Ass'n's.	No. of Nurses.
New York	51	184
Massachusetts	40	71
Pennsylvania	16	36
New Jersey	13	20
Ohio	11	24
California	9	16
New Hampshire	8	11
Illinois	7	40
Maryland	6	17
Michigan	7	16
Virginia	5	14

Cities Having the Largest Number of Associations.

	Ass'n's.	No. of Nurses.
New York	29	156
Boston	9	33
Baltimore	6	18
Philadelphia	5	25
San Francisco	5	12
Chicago	4	37
Cincinnati	3	7
Buffalo	3	6
Yonkers	3	3
Providence	2	9

Victorian Order of Nurses for Canada

Margaret H. Allen

Chief Lady Superintendent, Victorian Order of Nurses for Canada

It was fitting that a scheme, the occasion and organization of which was to commemorate the diamond jubilee of Queen Victoria, the greatest queen in history and the greatest woman of the century, should have first been suggested in the Council of Organized Women Workers of Canada, presided over by her excellency the Countess of Aberdeen. Early in 1897, a resolution was sent by the British Columbia branch of the National Council of Women to the central executive, calling attention to the need for the further medical and nursing assistance of the settlers in the north-west and west generally.

On July 15, 1897, the executive resolved that the best method of celebrating the diamond jubilee would be to devise

a plan whereby nursing aid might be available in outlying districts all over Canada. The needs of such districts and the beneficence of the idea of relief were admitted by all. The scheme was a vast one, however, and much care and thought were felt to be needed before it could be submitted to the public judgment.

The close of 1897 saw the Victorian Order established under royal charter, with headquarters at Ottawa, where the executive council meets monthly, each branch sending in a monthly report. During the first year of the order's existence, fourteen nurses were admitted and five districts opened. Training homes were established in Montreal and Toronto, the object of these homes being to give nurses who were graduates of

recognized training schools, a four-months' course in district work. Their work proving satisfactory during this time, they were then given the diploma of the order, and assigned a district or hospital, as the case might be.

The objects of the order are:

1. To supply nurses (thoroughly trained in hospital and district nursing and subject to one central authority) for the nursing of the sick, who are otherwise unable to obtain trained nurses in their own homes, both in town and country districts.

2. To bring local associations for supplying district nurses into association by affiliation with the order, which bears her majesty's name, and to afford pecuniary or other assistance of such local associations.

3. To maintain as a first necessity a high standard of efficiency for all district nursing.

4. To assist in providing small cottage hospitals or homes. It was soon seen that district nurses in the middle west, owing to the great distances, were of little use, and a plan to establish cottage hospitals has been successfully carried out.

The success of this scheme is largely due to the efforts of Lady Minto, who during her stay in Canada, raised a fund of about one hundred thousand dollars, the interest of which goes towards the assistance of Victoria Order hospitals scattered throughout the country. At Rock Bay, a lumbering camp, situated on Vancouver Island about one hundred and fifty miles north of Vancouver, the Victorian Order last July opened a small hospital. Scattered among the islands in this region, there are many lumbering camps, employing between three and four thousand loggers. These men were without medical aid of any kind, the nearest hospital being at Vancouver and the boat touching at the various camps only once a week. An appeal was sent to the Vancouver local committee of the Victorian Order, asking that something be done and within a few months the present hospital was opened. Two Victorian Order nurses are employed here. It was at first thought these nurses would have to work entirely on their own responsibility, the order not being able to pay the salary of a physician. The hospital was then intended as an emergency hospital only; the patients were to be transferred to Vancouver as soon as possible. However, this difficulty was overcome by the British

Columbia Mission sending out the mission boat "Columbia." This boat carries a supply of medicine, dressings, etc., and has two hospital berths. The doctor in charge of the "Columbia" makes Rock Bay his headquarters, endeavoring to be there every forty-eight hours, in the meantime cruising about to the different camps, caring for the sick and bringing to the hospital those cases requiring special nursing and skill. It can be easily seen how the two nurses, during the doctor's absence, are often called upon to do emergency work, their experiences being many during the few short months of the hospital's existence. These Victorian Order nurses are the only resident women for a radius of many miles, though they are seldom without a female patient. Among the hospital's first patients was a half-breed woman, the nurses being the first white women she had seen in three years. Without doubt the hospital and the "Columbia" have saved many lives. Much might be said along the same lines of many of the other Victorian Order hospitals in the west, though none are so isolated as Rock Bay. For instance, a man with both hands crushed so that amputation was necessary, rode seventy miles on an engine over an unfinished road to reach the hospital at Swan River, Manitoba. Had it not been for this hospital he would at that time have had a still further journey of about three hundred miles on a train by no means comfortable, and requiring about fifteen hours to cover that distance. Another case of a trapper, badly burned by his camp-fire, walked sixteen miles to the nearest house in the depth of winter, and then drove thirty miles to reach the hospital. He was both badly burned and frozen.

The districts for the most part are in the large cities and towns, though we have a few nurses doing district work in outlying villages. The work of the nurses in these small places can hardly be called district work, so much of it is continuous, the nurses remaining at a critical case for sometimes three weeks, at the same time, perhaps, making district visits to two or three cases, which do not require such constant care.

In the early days of the order, a district was opened in the Rainy River country. Fort Francis then had no railway, and the nurse had a stage drive of one hundred and eighty miles in the middle of winter, the other passengers being two engineers. The nights, as a rule extremely cold, were spent in shacks built along the banks of the river. The nurses stationed at Fort Francis also cared for many patients on the American side of the river. On one occasion, they had patients who were very ill on both the Canadian and American side, crossing and re-crossing in a small boat during the formation of the ice. This mode of navigation was at that time anything but safe.

The work of district nursing is not only confined to the actual care of her patients but to teaching as well; to try to make them understand the necessity of cleanliness, fresh air, etc. It is difficult to say just how many patients a nurse can care for during the day. A great deal depends on the condition of things in the house or room the patient may be in. She is, however, expected to be on duty eight hours daily with an afternoon once a week and part of Sunday off duty.¹ The nurse attends all cases except those of contagion. Districts employing a night nurse answer all night calls possible. Where there is no regular night nurse employed, only maternity night calls are answered, the nurse, who has thus been out for several hours during the night being given extra time for rest the following day. About two-thirds of the cases cared for by the district nurse are obstetrical. From an hour to an hour and a half is the time usually spent in the morning care of the mother and baby. Two visits a day are given these cases for the first three days; then one visit until the tenth day. Much of the work of the order is done among the mechanics, or people who are able to pay twenty-five to thirty cents per visit. About one-third is entirely charitable. No case is accounted as free, which pays

¹In the cities and towns where the visiting nursing only is done, the nurse begins her day's work at 8:15 A. M. She carries a bag containing dressings, disinfectants, etc., also temperature charts and blank forms for messages to be exchanged between the doctor and nurse.

the smallest sum, perhaps one dollar for several weeks' care. It is only those who pay absolutely nothing who are entered on the free list. It has been estimated that every visit made by the nurse costs the order sixty cents, the return being about twenty cents. Each local committee has many sub-committees, one of the most important being the work done by the relief committee. If the nurse has a destitute case, it is reported to this committee, who see that the patient has proper nourishment, or if the patient happens to be the bread-winner of the family, this committee may find itself with the whole household on its hands.

Another important part of the work is the district linen closet. This closet contains supplies of night dresses, wrappers, baby linen, bed linen, etc. These things are lent during the time of illness or given away as the case may require.

It is hoped that during this year a training school will be established in connection with the hospital at Regina, Saskatchewan. Part of the three years of this course will be spent in private and district work in the town, under the personal supervision of the lady superintendent of the hospital and staff physician.

Eight years ago the order started on a very small scale under much adverse criticism and misunderstanding among the people and even among physicians as to the work to be undertaken by its nurses. Now it is a well established and well known institution. Many towns and cities request the service of our nurses, and its work seems to be limitless; a lack of funds being the serious drawback to placing nurses in small villages, unable to undertake the responsibility of entirely supporting a nurse. It seems a tremendous undertaking to cover this vast Dominion with a net-work of districts and hospitals, yet this is slowly and surely being done, the work now extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific and including seventeen hospitals and eighteen districts, making a total of thirty-five branches and employing about ninety nurses. During 1904 over 6,000 patients were cared for by the order. The annual report for 1905 will greatly increase this number.

Visiting Nursing in a Great City

A Short History of the Visiting Nurse Association of Chicago

Harriet Fulmer

Superintendent of Nursing Staff

In 1887 Miss Shumway, of Chicago, became much interested in house-to-house nursing she found carried on in the homes of the needy in the larger cities of Europe. Upon her return to Chicago she established three visiting nurses in the center of a small section in the congested part of the South Side, and called them, in memory of her mother, the Augusta Memorial Visiting Nurses. At the end of two years Miss Shumway married and went east to live, but the work she had established was too valuable to die, and a few public spirited women assumed the responsibility of creating and incorporating the organization now known throughout the country as the Chicago Visiting Nurse Association. The new society was founded in December, 1889, to work under its charter "for the benefit and assistance of those otherwise unable to secure skilled attendance in time of illness, to promote cleanliness, to teach the proper care of the sick, and to establish or maintain one or more hospitals or home or homes for the accommodation or training of nurses." This charter alone, shows how far-seeing these women were as to the possibilities of the future development of visiting nurse work. Seventeen years ago, they must have had in mind a small hospital for incurable cases, a sanatorium for treatment of the tubercular poor, a central home for the workers, and a training school for district nurses, for their charter covers all these things. Most of these proposed plans have been brought to fruition, not all in Chicago, but in some one of the various associations throughout the country, which have modeled their outlines upon this.

It will be a matter of general interest to know the exact increase of workers, patients, visits, and cost of maintenance since the Chicago organization began:

	Nurses.	Patients.	Visits.	Expense.
1889	3	771	8,566	\$2,822.
1897	9	3,882	30,532	13,400.
1905	26	6,710	5,100	27,000.

In 1889, 89 cases of tuberculosis; 1897, 195 cases; 1905, 671 cases. Entirely non-sectarian in character, it has nursed the needy sick in the homes of every religion, race, and nationality, that drifts to this most cosmopolitan city. Every branch of civic activity, the police and health departments, the medical and lay world—now asks the services of these public workers, and dense must be the person who cannot see, or narrow minded the one who will not see what manifold service this house-to-house nursing is rendering in educating the masses to responsibility and greater regard for the sanitary conditions of their surroundings.

The Chicago association requires that its nurses shall be especially trained in all branches of their profession—not because they wish these nurses to take the place of physicians, but because they wish them to know at a glance if the right care is being given. Few orders for nurses come directly from physicians. Nine times out of ten the nurse must find the physician. Nineteen out of twenty calls for the nurse come from "the neighbor" who has had the nurse and is anxious that her friend may have the same skilled care. Great stress is laid upon our desire to regard the etiquette of nurse toward physician, and the poor are urged to provide and pay for their own medical attendant; but, if the family dismiss one physician, and call another, this does not affect the attitude of the nurse. She maintains her neutral ground, as caretaker of the sick and she does not alone nurse the sick member of the family, but becomes at once the friendly adviser to adjust all the ills, material and otherwise, that are to be found in the area of the humble living place in the dark basement flat. One need not

stop to wonder why nurses' settlements have such a hold on the people. They stand for nursing the home as well as the occupants. Our work in Chicago as well as elsewhere is endorsed by the medical profession, but here as elsewhere, its methods and service and plans are promoted by nurses. They deserve no especial credit for this for they are fortunate enough to belong to a profession which gives them opportunities in this direction, not obtained in any other field of work. The application blanks sent to candidates make the following specifications: An applicant must be a graduate of high standing of a good general hospital. She must possess a good general education, good health and a kind heart, an agreeable personality and unusual executive ability. She must maintain strict personal neatness and observe professional courtesy, and must be willing to give her undivided attention to the work. The untrained caretaker, after a period of trial, was found to be detracting from the standard we were trying to maintain in other departments of the work, and for this reason the employment of untrained helpers was discontinued. In their place was substituted a special twelve-hour service by the members of the staff, either by night or by day, and when this is not adequate we employ the nurses from regular hospital registries and pay them the full wages. This method has given hundreds of nurses an insight into the homes of the less fortunate, and best of all no risks are taken in caring for the patients.

**Outside
the Home
Service.**

Chicago has not yet found the time to put in practice many of its long cherished schemes for branching out. We have been so busy meeting just the immediate needs of the hundreds of cases that come to us, and this work has grown so rapidly that there has not been a convenient time for new things. However, a few things outside the home service, have fallen to us. Three years ago, through the work of the nurses, the board found the great need for taking some especial stand in the crusade against the spread of tuberculosis. They appropriated \$2,000 to equip and main-

tain an office for a sub-committee which should have in charge the work of collecting statistics and promoting educational work along this line. The work of the nurses enhanced the usefulness of this committee by securing histories and pertinent information, by reporting houses for disinfection, and by giving general instruction, supervision, and care to the well members of the family as well as to those afflicted with the disease. Our field in this direction is but the repetition of visiting nurses in all other cities. The special work done in the public schools for three years, is exactly that done by the corps of nurses in New York, and is too well known to need further detailed description. The voluntary effort of the visiting nurses in this direction may result in establishing the school nurse permanently in Chicago. This much for our educational demonstrations.

Illinois has no sanatoria for the treatment of incipient cases of tuberculosis among the poor. This year we were fortunate enough to maintain for three months a group of tents along the lake shore for these cases, and the outcome of this experiment is the permanent establishment of a tent colony for fifteen of our cases. The future growth of this especial effort is not to be measured.

One interesting phase of the work established two years ago, was the especial detailing of one of our nurses to the McCormick Reaper Works of the International Harvester Company, one of the largest manufacturers of the west. This nurse visits the sick employees in the home, treats minor ills at the factory where 700 girls are employed, and assists for two hours each day at the dispensary maintained at the factory. The work is interesting and satisfactory to those who contribute to its support. This is the only association maintaining a nurse of this kind.

Another progressive step is the maintenance of a visiting nurse by the Children's Memorial Hospital for the care of convalescent cases. These cases are followed up in the homes for continued care and instruction, and the hospital is relieved from overcrowding and a place made for urgent cases. It is said by

the hospital authorities to be distinct money saving to the institution. Forty cases in three months have been cared for in this way.

A Central
Dwelling
Planned.

It is the desire of the Chicago association in the near future to provide a central dwelling for the nurses, which shall also serve as headquarters for the work of the association. The association also wishes to maintain a training school for post-graduate preparation for district nursing. It does not wish to use the homes of the patients for a "sociological clinic," but to prepare the members of the nursing profession, that they may pursue their chosen work in a wider field of usefulness than that within the hospital walls, and with proper supervision and instruction to teach pupil nurses a new line of thought.

Twelve thousand surgical dressings were done by the nurses in 1905, and gauze cotton, antiseptic solution and bandages were furnished for each. The loaning system supplies the place of the "good neighbor" of other days, because in our case the good neighbor has no sheet or basin to spare. Hundreds of sheets and towels and sick room appliances are kept on the rounds throughout the year, providing that comfort in time of illness that the more fortunate classes find for themselves. Among the "necessities" given are elastic stockings, abdominal binders, braces, eye glasses, wheel chairs, comforters, and blankets. In giving these various articles many patients are again made permanently self-supporting.

A mental picture of the recipients of this care brings visions of real Samaritanism. The needy sick are here, the hospital institutions are inadequate, and visiting nurses throughout the country are doing what no one else can—"tidying things over"—until educational and reform measures of sanitation and hous-

ing shall have their effect. With no blaze of trumpets, and almost unknown in many cities they are quietly pursuing their good work.

The visiting nurses are known in Chicago in the following authorized appointments: As probation officers to the wards of the Juvenile Court in homes where unsanitary conditions and physical ills exist; as sanitary inspectors of the Department of Health; as school nurses, to care for minor ills at the schools and follow up excluded cases; as adjuncts to hospitals and dispensaries in caring for convalescents and chronic cases, relieving the congestion of hospital wards, and in dispensary service making the prescribed treatment more efficacious by seeing that it is carried out.

In response to a toast, "The Visiting Nurse," a prominent medical man of Chicago, gave the following:

* * *

And who is my neighbor?

And it came to pass that a mother went down from the second to the nineteenth ward and fell among microbes, and the microbes increased and multiplied, and behold they attacked the baby and the child was stripped of its nutrition, and was left half dead.

And a certain physician passed that way on the same side and wrote a prescription.

And in like manner a benevolent countess was good to the child, but behold, not good with it; and left money and soon passed to the other side and gave a vaudeville performance on the Lake Shore Drive for the benefit of the South Sea Islanders.

But a certain Visiting Nurse as she journeyed came to where the child was, and behold, was not only good to the child, but good with it, and she poured soap and water over the child and put it on a bed, and the bed was clean and warm and dry, and the primary nutrition of the child waxed and grew and the secondary nutrition did likewise, and there was no more retrograde metamorphosis of tissue; and as the Visiting Nurse departed the mother of the child opened her mouth and spake in broken English, "Heaven bless you, Miss, a thousand times; if you not come, I not have my baby."

The Visiting Nurse in a Small City

Caroline Bartlett Crane

Kalamazoo, Michigan

The needs of the sick poor in the small city are in peculiar danger of being overlooked.

In the rural or village community everybody knows everybody, and obligations of proximity and acquaintance are generally recognized. In the great city the concrete examples of misery daily brought to public notice are so appalling as to inspire in great numbers of persons heroic efforts for relief. But in most communities, which have but recently outgrown the village stage, there is a long bleak interim between the personal neighborliness that *used* to be and the organized guardianship that has *got* to be, if the sick poor are to have anything like proper care.

The small city has lagged behind the great city in the matter of nursing in the homes of the poor just as it has lagged behind in the matter of medical care and nursing in almshouses. Where fifty nurses are needed to care for hundreds of sick, whether inside or outside of institutions, heroic efforts will be made to procure them. Where one nurse could allay the misery of a score or two, it usually is not thought worth while. However, in those places where it has been thought worth while, the results appear to be relatively as good in the small city as in the large. Indeed, because the balance of favorable environment rests with the smaller city, it is possible that results there are relatively greater.

As a bit of evidence of the value of visiting nursing in the small city, I am asked to tell the two years' experience of this work in Kalamazoo, Michigan, a city of about 35,000.

The work of our visiting nurse, one of the many activities of the Women's Civic Improvement League, was inaugurated, February 24, 1904. It was determined at the outset that only a nurse of exceptional training and exceptional personal qualities would be able to fulfill the difficult requirements of work among the poor, where so many of the usual acces-

sories of nursing would be lacking, and where, presumably, unusual tact, tenderness, patience and principle would be needed. Also, it was thought best to draw up a set of rules, partly for the government, and partly for the protection, of this *rara avis*, should we find her.

These rules specified the duties of the nurse: To visit and nurse the sick poor, and to instruct the family in nursing, invalid cooking, personal hygiene and household sanitation; to keep full records of each case; to observe strict professional etiquette towards the physician in charge, and, where medical attendance is lacking and needed, to procure the attendance of the family physician or the city or county physician; always to maintain her status as a visiting nurse, never prolonging any one visit beyond one and one-half hours without permission of the committee; never to visit where she has not been requested to do so by the attending physician or by a member of the patient's family; to make no visits knowingly upon contagious cases, except cases of tuberculosis, pneumonia, influenza, typhoid, tonsilitis and less communicable diseases; and to report all suspicious cases to the family physician or to the health officer; not to accept fees for herself, but to receive, in behalf of the league for the support of the work, such fees as the patient feels able to pay.

The hours specified are from eight to six, with one hour's rest at noon, and one half-holiday a week, where duties allow. Sunday service is to be rendered only in cases where the patient would suffer serious disadvantage were the daily call omitted. The uniform is plain gray wash stuff, white collar and cuffs, gray uniform coat and gray bosnet and veil. The apron is never worn on the street. The nurse carries a finely equipped visiting nurse's bag, presented to her by a wealthy woman in appreciation of her services to a little daughter,

when, in a sudden illness, a regular nurse could not immediately be found.

The support of the work has always depended on personal subscriptions of specified sums monthly, together with membership fees of the league. The fees collected from patients are a small item, seldom paying for more than the incidental expenses for the month. They range from five to twenty-five cents, rarely more than ten; usually nothing. In humble, though self-supporting homes, the advent of sickness is at best such a financial burden, that often we hesitate to add to that burden. In the homes of the very poor, of course, no fee is expected.

In order to introduce our nurse at once to those whose co-operation was most desired, we posted a circular statement to each physician, minister, and school principal, and to the heads of all local charitable societies, the departments of the poor, and to the police office; also to many individuals engaged in charitable work. Soon our nurse was making eight or ten calls a day, which is about all she can manage. Since we have but one nurse and her "district" covers the whole city, a disproportionate amount of time must be spent in traveling. We hope soon to have two nurses and to divide the city between them.

The work of the nurse belongs in the charities organization department of the league. She lives at the department headquarters, and, during her absence on duty, calls for her are taken by the charities organization secretary.

Those
Who Are
Treated.

As to the cases nursed, they comprise everything from the new-born babe and its mother to the aged bed-ridden man or woman whose trouble is gradual decay, and whose needs are baths, nourishing food and occasional delicacies, the loan of bed-linen and the frequent sight of a cheery face and touch of a tender, capable hand. Nowhere does the nurse meet with more gratitude than from the helpless aged. It is noticeable that the family conscience often seems to be touched, so that thoughtless or neglectful children will themselves do more for the comfort of

such a patient because of the ministrations of the nurse.

In the same way the visits of the nurse are a great stimulation to neighborliness. For example, the nurse visits a home in which the mother is sick. There are no sheets on the bed, the clothing of the patient is filthy, her hair uncombed, the room is in frightful disarray, the kitchen is filled with dirty dishes, and ashes and broken food strew the floor. The husband is perhaps working too hard by day to do more than attend to the most pressing wants of his wife at night. Or, he may be shiftless and irresponsible; or, this may be an abandoned wife. The neighbors have brought cooked meals to the sick woman, but they may have overlooked some other items of helpfulness, having household cares of their own in plenty.

The nurse takes off her bonnet and coat and rolls up her sleeves, convinced that here she will stay her full hour-and-a-half! She bathes the invalid, combs her hair, renovates the bed and tidies the room a bit, promising clean bed and body-linen on the morrow. Then, if there is no one else to press into service, she makes some impression on the kitchen before her departure. As like as not, on her return next day, she will find clean sheets and gown on her patient, clean dishes and a swept floor in the kitchen, and two or three neighborly women to welcome her and ask what they can do. They will probably ask her to go and see somebody else sick "down the street a ways;" and she will ask them to ask the physician or the family to ask her to go; for she knows her questionable status and usefulness if she merely asks herself!

The neighbors often manifest an eagerness to learn, as for example: The nurse ventilated a room between sashes, by placing a board under the raised lower sash; this method doing away with a draught across the bed. The patient said that at least a dozen women, having heard about it, came to see just how it was done; admired it, and wondered they had never heard of such a good and simple thing before.

Probably the visiting nurse's greatest usefulness among us is in the case of the

new-born babe and its mother. She does not attend confinements because time will not permit; but she will go immediately after confinement. Her services are invaluable in promoting the safe recovery of the mother without those complications especially liable to arise in homes where it is difficult to take proper precautions against infection. Then, this is her golden opportunity to start the little stranger aright on his journey through a none too hospitable world; to dissuade the good grandmother from feeding him whiskey or coffee or cane sugar as a starter, and swaddling him in cruel bands and making him generally uncomfortable and malcontent; to teach the mother of the bottle-fed baby the elements of hygienic care of milk and utensils, and to start a friendship which will surely lead the family to call her back during that critical second summer. The palpable services rendered, backed by the professional manner and the uniform, are potent in securing for the dictum of the nurse the respect even of the fond grandmother.

Our nurse has saved the eyesight of several infants born with specific infection, and has been able to call other forms of illness or defect to the timely attention of the physician.

Every season, unfortunately, brings to us its quota of typhoid cases. The nurse has more than once given three temperature baths to three patients daily for weeks in the same house. She has been equally serviceable in cases of pneumonia and many other critical illnesses where we have reason to believe that her daily visits and her instruction have made the difference between recovery and death. She dresses inflammations, wounds, ulcers, bedsores, cancers; bandages varicose limbs, assists at operations, and—helps mothers to rid the children's hands and heads of scabies and pediculosis which are keeping them out of school.

The nurse keeps special watch for cases of tuberculosis, notifying the health officer and instructing the patient as to the care of sputum; and, when necessary, providing warm clothing, nourishing food and stimulants.

Co-operation
from
Many Sides.

For the encouragement of any who meditate the establishment of visiting nursing in a small city, I must tell of the abundant help we receive from every side. There is our big "nurse's basket." From time to time we give notice through the papers that this basket needs to be refilled. Instantly the women's society of some church or a fraternal order sends for it, and fills it with bedding, nightdresses, old linen, infants' clothing, jellies, canned fruit, breakfast foods, bouillon, soaps, toilet articles, and dozens of other useful things which abundantly stock both the loan closet and the gift closet of the nurse. The last time this basket was filled, the value of the contents, at a conservative estimate, was \$45.00. An appeal to merchants, to druggists, to householders, in behalf of special needs, is always generously answered. The street car company gives free rides everywhere; the lighting companies, free gas and electricity; our telephone is free; we have been given three invalid wheel chairs for our sick, and we have had given us nearly enough money for a fourth. Church societies do free sewing for the patients of the nurse, and the Horlick Milk Company gave us last year twenty pounds of malted milk for one baby whose physician prescribed it as a necessity. We think we ought reasonably to do a few things for others, considering all the generous help we receive ourselves.

I ought to speak, too, of the great indirect benefit to the community of a visiting nurse who is alert to render all possible services. As she comes to know a family well, she can often put her finger on just the economic or sanitary shortcoming of that family, which keeps them poor or makes them sick. She is able to point out the folly of the cut-throat chattel mortgage; the grocery credit-book; the unnecessary furniture purchased so dearly on the alluring installment plan; the ruinous economy of living in dark rooms or amid unsanitary surroundings because the "rent is so cheap"; the suicidal policy of taking the children prematurely out of school to put them to work.

She reports to the charities organiza-

tion headquarters cases of destitution or of lack of employment, and sometimes she reports the drunken or non-supporting husband, the shiftless and extravagant wife, the truant or wayward children; violations of sanitary regulations and violations of the child labor law. These family matters are held in confidence by the charities organization, which does what it can, through its secretary and savings collector and friendly visitors, and by means of the employment bureau and the woodyard; through the health officer also, and the superintendent of schools and the truant officer and the prosecuting attorney, if need be.

Some time ago we applied for permission for our nurse to undertake nursing in one of the public schools, thinking that if it proved a success we would endeavor to procure two nurses and do nursing in several of the schools; and that we would be able to give more careful attention, also, to the matter of tuberculosis. Permission was denied us, because of a plan in the mind of a member of the school board to introduce medical inspection by

physicians next year. We feel that, even were there regular medical inspection, the visiting nurse is still a necessity to further the work of the physician. We earnestly hope that another year will see the school nurse a reality in at least a few of our schools.

When we shall have two or more nurses, we hope, also, to have neighborhood classes for instruction in home sanitation and nursing. We believe that such classes would be successful if started among mothers in whose homes the nurse has already become a friend. Would it not be a consummation devoutly to be wished, if such instruction were to become a felt want in the homes of the well-to-do and the rich?

In closing I wish to say that it is the sentiment of the Women's Civic Improvement League, and, I believe, of this city, that there never has been undertaken in Kalamazoo any work which gives better results for time, money and energy expended, than the work of the visiting nurse.

District Nursing in a Rural Community

Christopher C. Thurber

Head Worker, Church Settlement House, Danbury, N. H.

Disease, suffering, often the result of an utter lack of instruction in hygiene and ordinary sanitary and medical affairs, and with the nearest hospital over thirty-five miles away—these things brought about the founding of the Country Settlement in the heart of New Hampshire, to the northwest of Concord, its capital city.

The Country Settlement first became, even to a small degree a reality in a picturesque little village, nestling 1,200 feet above sea level among the beautiful foothills of the White Mountains—a natural center for the greater portion of the seven towns bordering it on either side, in a district of perhaps some one hundred and fifty square miles—a typical “decadent” rural region with fully one hundred abandoned farms within its borders and from whose rocky hillsides a decent livelihood is only to be obtained by unceasing toil and struggle.

In the heart of one of its summer visitors, more than twenty years ago, was born the idea of a rural nurse for this needy district. Seldom has a summer passed since then in which this idea has not been put into practice to some extent for several weeks, at least, by the one who first conceived it, herself a woman with some hospital training. From the very day on which the Country Settlement was incorporated in 1903, “a *rural nurse* for this vast region” has been one of our ideals. This in a small degree, has been realized, not continuously by the daily and systematic work of a professional district nurse, but by temporary visitors, volunteer workers, and for the past year most faithfully by a trained graduate of the Massachusetts General, and Bellevue Hospitals—a nurse of wide experience.

With the nurse filling also the position of housemother and having the responsibility of various classes, it has been im-

possible to leave her entirely free—subject to the call of the local physician, who has seldom an idle moment. This very day he has driven, on his errands of mercy and relief, fifty-four miles over the hills and mountains of this rough and rugged region and his day's work is not yet done. In our conversation a few hours ago the doctor told me of the help and blessing a nurse could have been in every one of his twenty visits made to-day. He can tell you of serious cases by the dozen, where persons are too ill to be removed the forty miles to a hospital and where a trained nurse would seem an absolute necessity, even though the little farm house be mortgaged to cover the expense. An hour's visit each day from a district nurse, in the majority of cases, would be all that was necessary.

Notwithstanding that our district nurse is as yet but a very humble reality, the record of her work for the past year speaks volumes, not only for her untiring labors, but of the possibilities of the future when generous friends make it possible for this rural district nurse to work here other than by filling several arduous positions in addition to the duties of her profession. Our local physician guarantees that more than one-half of her salary would be covered by the fees received from patients. In these past thirty-six months, our volunteer visitors, for the most part skilled nurses, have visited cases of appendicitis, biliousness, bronchitis, colic, chronic eczema, grippe, heart disease, indigestion, malaria, neuralgia, pleurisy, pneumonia, tonsillitis, typhoid fever, measles, chronic ulcers, abdominal tumor, asthma, cancer, paralysis, several obstetric cases, accidents and surgical operations—hundreds of visits representing, besides the hours of care and watching and labor, journeys by day and by night over these hills and valleys of many hundreds of miles.

The life of a rural district nurse in such a vast, thinly-populated region is bound to be strenuous. Suspicion of every sort, a general horror of anything new, stolid indifference and the extreme dullness of country life—are only a few of the discouraging features of district nursing in the country; yet even these

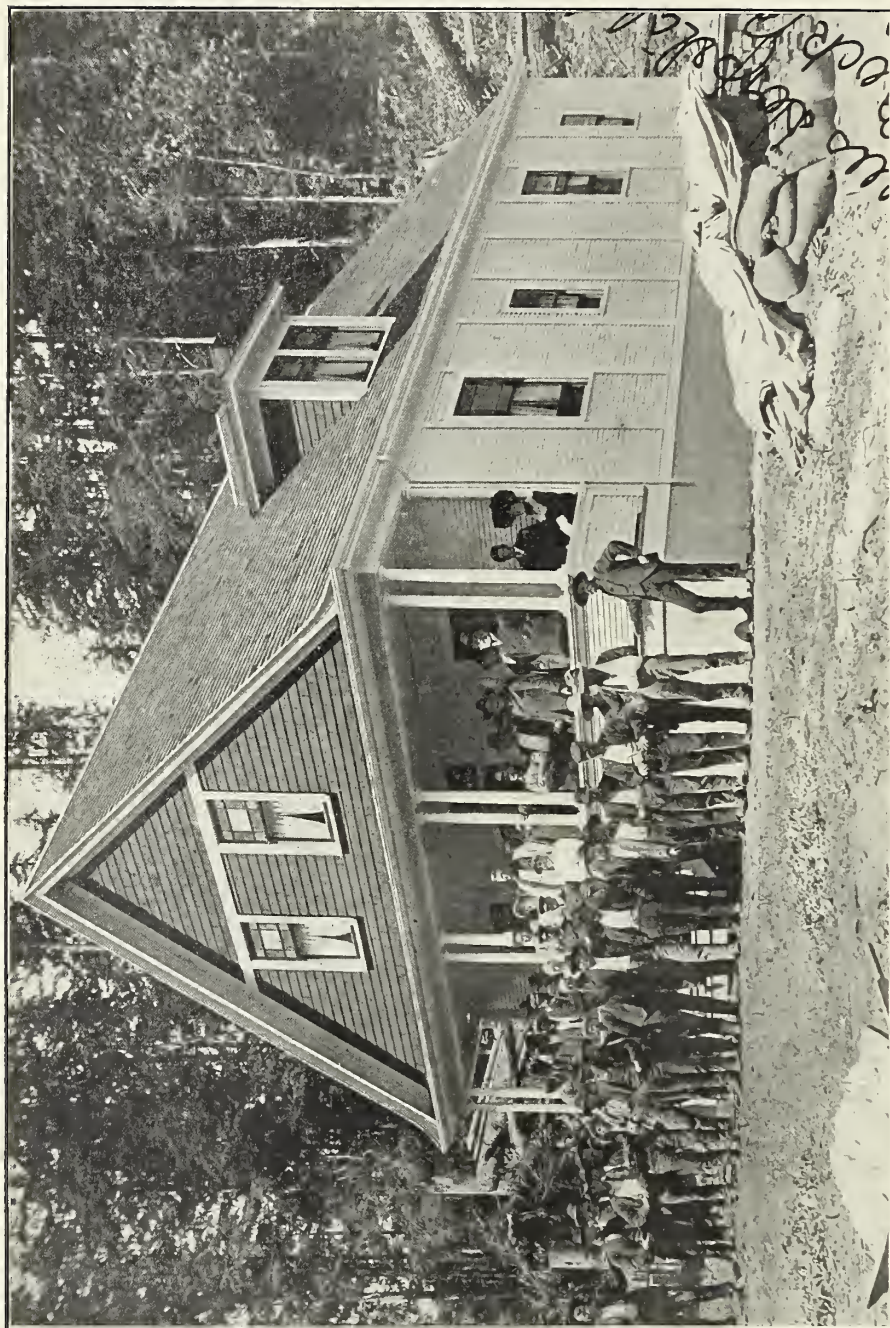
are often-times offset by cases of real gratitude, the lasting devotion of those won as friends and the invigorating life of constant journeying in this magnificent out-of-doors.

**Of Strength
and Courage
and Tuggings
at Heart
Strings.**

It takes the strength and courage of a heroine to go out on a Christmas night in a blinding snow-storm for a lonely eight-mile drive over the hills; and, finding a family of seven living in one room in indescribable squalor, a room of one bed, upon which three of the five little children were ill with diphtheria, and the mother, helpless from a broken arm, caring for the pale sick baby upon her breast—to remain there in that hovel of disease and misery far from neighbors and friends, for days and nights—with nowhere to rest her head.

Only a few days before, the nurse had been called to that same section, a mile farther on, to visit a very sick woman with only a feeble-minded son to care for her and nothing except pork and frozen potatoes in the house to eat. After the bathing and scrubbing, before departing, the nurse instructed the son how to prepare malted milk and other nourishments for the sick mother. She implored the poor woman to try to eat all she possibly could—assuring her that she would soon be well and strong, and leaving a bountiful supply of the prepared foods for the half-fed, hungry woman. Upon her next visit, two days later, picture the nurse's dismay when she discovers that her large jar of malted milk, besides jars of beef extract and bouillon (a supply of food sufficient for one person for well nigh a month), had been entirely consumed and to hear the patient—"All that stuff wan't no good—it took all my appetite away, but you told me to take it and I did." The old woman has been in perfect health ever since.

Never shall I forget the case of a poor paralytic—the son of invalid parents, both afflicted with chronic diseases—who for more than fifteen years was strapped to a dilapidated, shakey wheel-chair. For months, if not for those years, the poor fellow had not been bathed. He had been without proper care and food. Since then, until his death a month ago,



Queen's Hospital, Rock Bay, B. C. Here in a lumbering camp on Vancouver Island the Victorian Order of Nurses have opened their small hospital. One of their first patients was a half-breed woman who had not seen a white woman for three years. This is part of the first nursing system in America to carry on a state-wide work.

The Church Settlement House among the New Hampshire hills



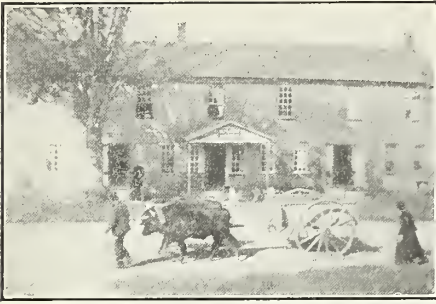
The Country Settlement House, containing a reading-room, work-rooms, night school, clothing bureau and dispensary. The amusement hall is used as an assembly room for dances, meetings of the men's clubs and village improvement society, and as a dormitory for fresh-air boys from Boston in the summer. Here the district nurse has residence and part of the house is sometimes used as a temporary hospital.



Off for a 10-mile tramp—the fresh-air boys from Boston.



Where the nurse wants a cottage hospital. \$1,000 would buy a large roomy house, stables, outbuildings and fifty acres of land (including a large pine grove) on the shores of this beautiful lake. This very spot is the natural center of a region of decadent rural towns, forty miles in either direction from the nearest hospital.



The old woman has come six miles to ask relief from the nurse from her "pepsy."

our visiting nurses brought him relief and cheer and new strength by their constant ministrations. A new and comfortable wheel-chair, proper clothing and nourishment, the best of medicines and care were all provided through their efforts—and did more than words can tell to brighten a long life of suffering, all the more appalling, amid such squalid conditions.

Nor can anything be more discouraging than to visit daily, and often twice daily, a child of twenty months, afflicted with chronic eczema—its poor little face one mass of bleeding sores and scabs—and to discover that each day after the nurse's departure, her instructions have been entirely disregarded and the remedies prescribed, thrown away—and trials of all sorts of patent and quack medicines have been made! The nurse next discovers that the milk, which forms the infant's daily diet, comes from a cow fed only on marsh hay and "dish water." Still persevering, the nurse begs the money to send the child to a city hospital for twelve weeks from which it is discharged as cured. After two weeks in its old home amid the same squalid surroundings, the disease returns in a more severe form than before.

**The Slum
of the
Mountain
Side.**

These are only a few of the many like cases—of midnight calls—cases of years of suffering—and plodding faithful daily work with the most disheartening results, which a rural district nurse encounters in her daily visits. The slums with all their sickness and misery and squalor are by no means confined to our cities. The country

nurse will find them in almost any rural community in New England.

Few are the nights when the rural nurse can go to her rest without retracing in her heart and mind all the weary journeyings of the day just ended. Is it any wonder that she yearns for a cottage hospital—where she would have clean cots and fresh air for the little patients ill with diphtheria all together on one filthy bed in one unventilated room—where she could be sure the baby suffering with eczema would have pure clean milk and proper care, and where her jars of malted milk and other foods would be fed in proper amounts and not melt away before the tremendous appetites of hungry patients.

Not content with dreaming of these needs—more than once she has given up her own room and bed at the settlement house for weeks and improvised her own hospital—where she could care for a serious surgical case necessitating a severe operation for the tuberculous affection of a bone:—again for a *whole winter*, a poor friendless dwarfed hermit, suffering from a paralytic shock—incurable she knew—but sick and suffering and alone, and with no door of any hospital or home in New England opened to him where he might go and die—except the almshouse:—and still again, her own bed is given up to a lad of sixteen who for months has been ill with rheumatism, too weak almost to moan and without proper nourishment and care. In a few weeks he is built up—strong and well so that he can return to his hard work on the farm and help support a hard-working mother and his younger brothers and sisters.

Ask the visiting nurse and she will show you the very spot where she wishes to begin her cottage hospital. The roomy farmhouse (in excellent repair) with various outbuildings, its pure water, the garden, rolling meadows and a large pine grove extending to the sandy shores of a beautiful little lake are waiting—only the few hundred dollars are lacking. Over more than one glorious hill-top her path of daily duty lies, and there often comes the vision of a hospital for poor consumptives. On these hill-tops, some 2,000 feet above sea level, the sun

pours down its warmth and healing powers all day long and the air is so clear and dry and pure up there; and she has not lived and toiled for nine long years among the city slums without hearing the cry that goes up from thousands, yes tens of thousands of hearts for the healing and strength and the life that is so free on these hill-tops and mountain sides, and which only a lack of dollars deprives from the countless victims of the white plague.

When in the summer time the dance hall in the settlement house is transformed into a dormitory for more than two hundred fresh-air boys from Boston's tenement districts, in squads of twenty or thirty, the rural district nurse finds many "special patients" to minister to and care for in her tiny dispensary.

**Of Plans
and Hopes
Ahead.**

Words can never tell the source of cheer and uplift and hope the visiting nurse is to many of these lonely, friendless women in their dreary monotonous country lives. Answering a call by a postal card the other day some twelve miles back in the hills, the nurse was informed that hers was the first face from the outside of that humble home that the poor sick woman had seen in eight weeks.

Many a heartache and pain and distress of mind does she soothe as well as agony of the body. Hers is the field of a real missionary. Her work falls without the abundant sympathy and encouragement of understanding hearts and kindred spirits; the opportunities for recreation and the inspiring helpfulness of co-laborers, which every district nurse in the city can enjoy.

Even our brief experience seems to prove as does the work of the Victorian Order in rural regions of Canada that the cottage hospital and rural visiting nurse ought to come together, differing from the work in the cities where district nursing is intended (and only necessary) to supplement and not to duplicate the work of hospitals. Another auxiliary to the visiting nurse should be the diet kitchen. In nearly every New Hampshire town there is a branch of that splendid organization — the



A glorious hill-top, 2,500 feet above sea level, where the rural nurse has visions of a sanatorium for poor consumptives.

Grange—already such a power for good and I am sure, in every town where a visiting nurse could be placed, the good women belonging to this organization would under the nurse's direction assume the responsibility of the diet kitchen.

There are scores of similar districts in New Hampshire alone, where the remote country towns are far from the railroads and large centers (with their hospitals), where there is the same appalling needs, the same sort of suffering and illness and misery and squalor. In the thinly settled towns in the northern part of the state, the needs are even greater. Often in these regions of forest and wilderness one finds thousands of men at work in the lumber camps—splendid, big-hearted rough fellows. They work hard, sometimes are injured, often are ill and seldom have proper care. What could not the cottage hospital and the rural visiting nurse in the little center a few miles away do for those poor fellows—homeless or far from home and friends, and who would always be "paying patients."

A fund of \$20,000 began what is today the really wonderful work of the Victorian Order of Nurses in Canada—and a fund of the same amount has been presented to the governor of this commonwealth by the Japanese and Russian Envoys to the Peace Conference held at Portsmouth last year to be "used for charitable works in New Hampshire." Is it wrong for our rural visiting nurse and the friends of our country towns to collect that \$20,000 to establish a fund to begin the work of the—

"Peace Order of Nurses in Rural New Hampshire."

The Development of Nurses' Settlements



A first aid room in the Italian quarter, New York.



A lesson in home nursing.

The Henry Street (The Nurses) Settlement, New York

Lilian D. Wald, R.N.

Head Nurse

The Henry Street (The Nurses) Settlement was started nearly thirteen years ago by two nurses (the writer one of them) with no defined program other than the desire to find the sick and to nurse them, and to establish ourselves socially in that neighborhood of New York in which we desired to work.

The Department of Health, in sympathy with the movement, created a badge which declared us to be "visiting nurses under the auspices of the Department of Health." This introduction was believed to be necessary to insure our admission to the tenements. However, it was found not a requisite after a very brief time.

Two years were spent in a tenement house on the lower East Side. Only the

first few days were the patients searched for; after that the calls for the nurses came from the people, from the physicians, and from the various agencies operating in the vicinity.

From the beginning the basic principles upon which the work was administered have been that nursing of the sick in their homes should be done seriously and adequately, instruction being incident to it and not the primary motive; that district nursing in its etiquette and purpose as far as the doctor and the patients are concerned should be analogous to the established system of the private nurse; namely, that the district nurse should be as ready to respond to the calls for her from the people themselves as well as the doctors and with as little

red tape as if, like the private nurse, she were to remain with the one patient continuously.

The hospitals are said to care for about one-tenth of the sick of the city. The high per capita cost and the consequent discouragement in hoping to approximate the needed relief of the sick by hospital, brings the question of other methods before the community. For obvious economic reasons a comprehensive system of caring for the sick in their homes thus demands serious attention. There must always be great numbers for whom this is impossible, patients who regarded from the medical point of view require the service that a hospital alone can give, but it is also true that their places are frequently appropriated by patients who might be cared for at home if proper nursing could be secured. The whole question has not been more than surface-touched, but our experience in the settlement and the experience of other established district nursing services is that this system is well worth completing, and that it is possible to co-operate with hospitals and institutions for the sick to the end that all of the sick of the city may be under care.

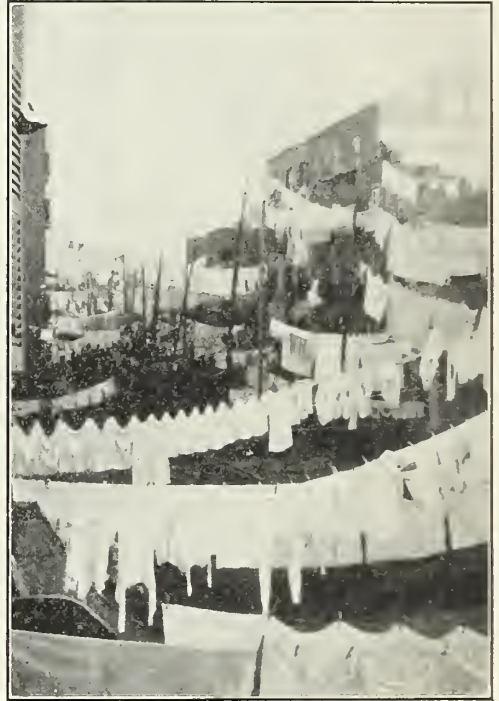
From the beginning of two, our staff has been increased to twenty-seven nurses, twenty-three in the districts, the others in charge of convalescent home, first aid room, administrative and clerical work. The original method has been developed to the present system.

Name	Age
Address	
First Visit	Last Visit
Diagnosis	Result
Reported by	
Occupation	
.....M.D.....	Nurse

A card catalogue, like the above, is filled out for all patients and kept on file; the "active," that is, those under treatment, filed separately from those dismissed. Each nurse records daily her work on blank sheets, provided for the purpose, giving the patient's name, length of time spent, summary of condition and the treatment given at each visit. An examination of a daily record will show that a patient showing a high tem-

perature in the forenoon will have a second or third visit, and that the nurse has planned her day so as to see those most seriously ill first in the morning and latest in the afternoon, in order to leave them as comfortable as possible for the night.

This exhausting work does not permit of night care by the same person, and occasionally the district nurse is supplemented by a night nurse obtained



From the dining-room of the uptown branch.

from the registries, paid for in whole or in part by the family or the settlement.

The Patients Cared For.

Bedside notes, identical with those used in hospital or by private nurses, are carefully kept for each patient for the use of the attending physician, to be seen by him at his visit or sent to his office or dispensary.

Of the patients many are very poor, unable to pay physician or nurse; some pay yearly dues to a lodge or benefit society entitling them to the services of a physician, but are generally unable to do more. Another numerous class pay

the physician and the district nurse, but would be unable to engage the full time of a nurse or to accommodate her in the small tenement or apartment house quarters. The fees range from ten to twenty-five cents a visit.

The statistics of the nurse's work of 1905 show the following:

Report of the Nurses' Work of the Settlement for 1905.

Number of	
Patients cared for in homes.....	5,032
Nursing visits	43,503
Friendly visits	4,732
Total visits	48,235
First aid treatments.....	13,791
Cases were reported by:	
Families	2,398
Physicians	1,881
Charitable agencies	753
Total.....	5,032
Disposition of cases:	
Cured	2,624
Hospital	740
Dispensary	598
Investigations	342
Died	312
Special nurse	165
Department of Health.....	69
Carried over into 1906.....	182
Total.....	5,032
Diagnosis of cases:	
Unclassified medical	1,735
surgical	602
Pneumonia and Bronchitis.....	956
Tuberculosis	296
Gynecological	212
Burns	197
Rheumatism	158
Obstetrical—normal and abnormal.....	155
Meningitis	123
Typhoid	122
Contagious.....	119
Ulcers	118
Cardiac	97
Eye diseases	90
Alcoholism	6
No illness	46
Total.....	5,032

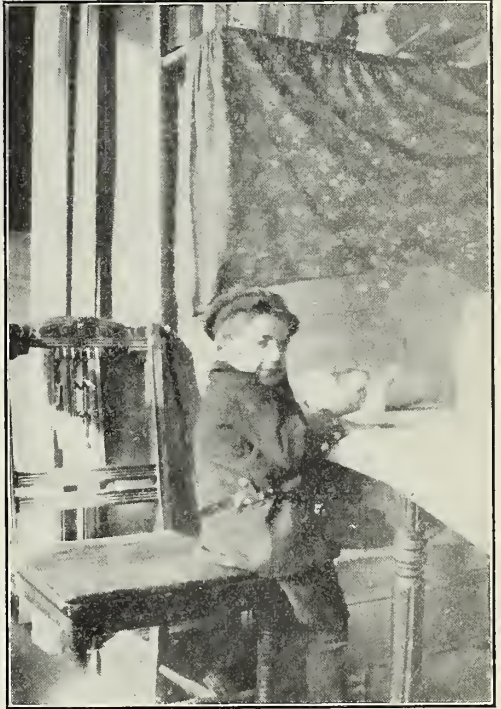
The year began with seventeen graduated nurses and one pupil nurse, and ended with nineteen graduated nurses, one pupil nurse and two superintendents. An obstetrical service was started in November with one of these nurses, taking only obstetrical cases.

Since the compilation of these figures a nurse has been established among the colored people, an intelligent and zealous worker for her race, and in the brief time since she started, the same response has been afforded her that has given courage and optimism to her fellow-workers in the other districts.

The "first aid treatment" (for lack of a better name) referred to in the year's record, describes a service which has developed from a need among the ambu-

lant sick. A nurse is on duty in a properly equipped room for the dressing of patients able to come to her. Many have been previously under the care of the nurses and many are sent by physicians of dispensaries who have prescribed daily care of old suppurating wounds, ulcers, etc.

The settlement maintains also for the care of the sick a convalescent home, "The Rest," on the Hudson, one of the



A little Harlem boy. The mother sick; the nurse has fixed his luncheon.

nurses supervising it and charged with the responsibility of sending back to the burdens of life patients benefited mentally as well as in body.

The Settlement and the Community.

I have dwelt thus far on the development of the professional portion of the settlement. It is not possible, however, to separate the basic principle of the technical service from that of the general social one. The service now practically covers Manhattan. All of the nurses live in the neighborhood in which their patients are,



Small Eastsiders in their home street.



In a first aid room.

Small Eastsiders under a dog-wood tree
on a summer's outing.



A class of girls in home nursing.



One of the country houses of the Henry Street (the Nurses) Settlement—overlooking the Hudson.

either in the houses of this (The Henry Street) Settlement, down-town and up-town; in the other social settlements which maintain them (the College Settlement, Friendly Aid House, University Settlement, Greenpoint Settlement, Hartley House) or in apartments of their own. Two of the staff keep house in a huge Italian tenement on Sullivan Street, and two in another tenement in the Hungarian quarter. Residence in communities such as these, in comradeship with others ardent for fellowship with and service for their neighbors, opens up inevitably a horizon of larger vision. The nurses have not failed to perceive and in a measure to seize the opportunities that have been made through their knowledge of conditions at first hand, and always in association with their colleagues, resident and non-resident.

The school nurse, firmly established now in this and other communities, was a direct result of the discovery of the child that is made truant because of inadequate medical service in the public schools.

Thirteen years ago the first two nurses, realizing the apparent danger to the community from ignorance of the source of danger, secured the names of patients who had applied for admission to hospitals for tuberculosis. These and others whom we came across were visited at regular intervals that instructions might be given to the family, and sputum cups and disinfectants left. Since then the community, through the Department of Health, clinics and other agencies has bands of nurses to do this systematically.

The state and national child labor committees have representation from the settlement through the head worker, but laborers for the child are not limited to her. Practically each and every member of the settlement, nurse and lay member, resident and non-resident, stands ardently for the abolition of child labor, that the man and woman may come into his or her rightful heritage. This fervor is born of their years of acquaintance with the child who has been made an industrial factor in society.

Working with the other forces of the

city for more reasonable social opportunity, the settlement has played its part in committee and otherwise, for tenement house reform, playgrounds, small parks, remedial employment measures, improved sanitary conditions, tuberculosis campaign, and the like.

Limitations of time and strength forbid the nurse who is on duty all day from being a very active participant in the general social activities of the settlement which have grown up side by side with her place in the neighborhood. From the first small groups of boys who wanted to "come in," a system of clubs and classes has grown and now includes from two thousand to three thousand people of all ages, who are enrolled and who regularly come to the various houses of the settlement for kindergarten, manual training, gymnasium, debates, dancing, lectures, study, storytelling, etc. Generous co-operation has been accorded by the capable and the intellectual of the locality. A faithful force of men and women not in residence have regular appointments and have charge of the social and educational engagements of the week. Members of the settlement family, not nurses, participate more actively in the study and

in the organized program, which does not vary greatly from that of other settlements and which must be familiar to most.

A considerable proportion of the residents have made the settlement their home and the permanent character of the household has thereby been established. It is to this in large measure that the relationship of the settlement to the community has seemed a definite one, at least so it seems to those within and closest to it.

The settlement activities are now sheltered in several homes in the city and in the country, over thirty people claiming residence in the various dwellings, and almost seventy-five non-residents have regular engagements to direct or share in the direction of the organized program. One would hesitate to urge this material increase lest it be interpreted as evidence of satisfactory attainment. The people represented in the settlement believe that they are in a small way working toward that end, and that the response given by neighbors and other friends is evidence of faith in the democratic purpose underlying the effort.



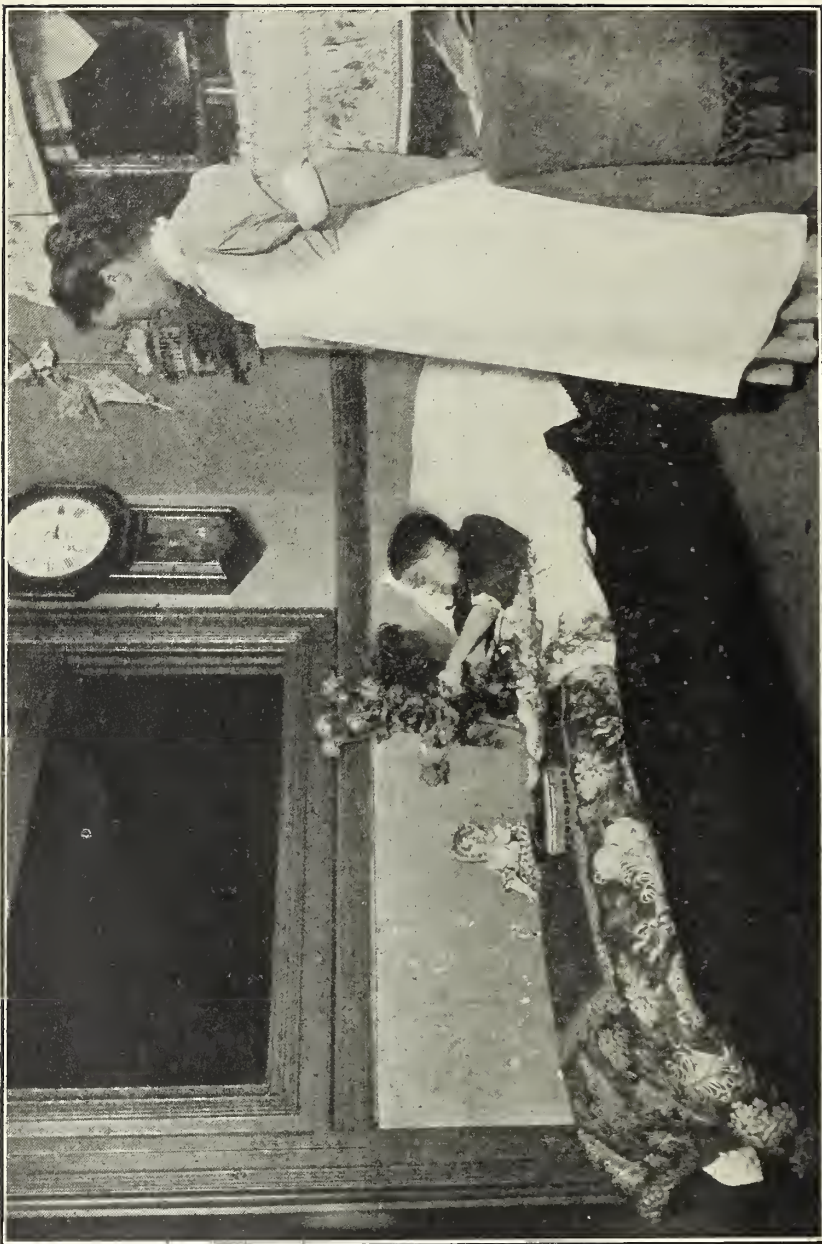
The convalescent house—open the year round.

In the Day's Work of the Settlement Nurse

[These sketches, contributed by workers of the Nurses Settlement, speak for themselves. They give glimpses of what visiting nursing means in the tenements of a large city.]

The following is taken from the daily report of a visiting nurse who began her work at 9 A. M., and finished at 5:45 P. M. with an intermission of one hour for lunch.

The first call made was at Mrs. R.'s—a destitute maternity case. The mother had been out of work for several months. The home had been given up, the father was dead and



A little tenement patient visited by a nurse from the Sullivan Street Branch. The mother earns nine cents a gross making artificial flowers. Those in the child's hands are real ones and illustrate the work of the Flower and Fruit Guild. The window opens out to an old style tenement airshaft, the picture affords an accurate conception of the amount of sunshine that therein is.

the remaining family (mother and two children) were living in a rented hall bed-room without a stove and possessing only the simplest furniture. Clean linen was brought from the emergency closet. Mother and baby were bathed and made comfortable.

Mr. P., her second patient, had a minor trouble of the leg but was a "crotchety old party" who never failed to tap on the window when the nurse passed and to beckon her in. His leg had attention and incidentally he had an opportunity to rail at the world in general and the work of the nurse in particular.

The next patient was Mrs. H., a white-haired Scotch woman of fine, sweet character, who has had daily attention for over five years. Although almost crippled by an infirmity in both lower limbs, she is not a suitable case for a hospital, and the nurse's care has made it possible for her to live in her little rooms with her son and keep the spirit of home about her.

Issie W. came next on her list. This little fellow of eight years was in the midst of a sharp attack of pneumonia, probably contracted by exposure after a visit to one of the free baths. A cleansing bath was given, followed by a cooling sponge. The bed was made over afresh and ice was applied to the head.

Annie C. was the fifth patient to be seen. Here was a new case and some time was spent in making the acquaintance of the family and this girl of nineteen who had been returned from one of our city hospitals with an incurable case of cancer, ineligible for further treatment at the general hospital where the operation had been performed, but still requiring daily care from skilled hands. The nurse met the doctor at this house and learned from him the history of the case and its prognosis. She left having made an appointment to return in the afternoon with utensils and dressings for treatment.

Immediately after luncheon the maternity case was visited again. All was going well with mother and child. On the way a visit was made to the rooms of a former patient who beckoned the nurse to admire a new piece of embroidery.

Her next stop was a re-visit to the cancer case. This time with all appliances on hand the dressing was carefully done and the mother was instructed concerning special care for the girl as to diet, bathing, etc.

The next address on the nurse's list took her to a buzzing shop building. Katie S., a daughter of the janitor, lay on a bed couch in a big, airy, empty shop-room on the second floor of a huge building near the river front. The whirr of the machinery from above and from below gave a strange effect to the sick-room. The little patient lay all undisturbed by the noise, watching the cool breeze from the river blow the muslin curtain in and out, and waiting for the nurse who had never failed to make her daily visit, with its comforting bath and bed-making, and who sometimes brought with her a bunch of fresh flowers from the country.

A call upon Mrs. S. followed. At one time

a beautiful woman, she now was showing unmistakable signs of the pulmonary tuberculosis that was holding her in its grasp. She lay half dressed on a couch in the little room that was parlor, bed-room and kitchen in one. A partial bath and a rub brought her some comfort and the bed arranged with cool, fresh linen looked restful. After an egg-nogg, the nurse left her prepared for a nap.

Visit eleven was to baby B. Diagnosis: convalescent pneumonia. The work here was not more than to tell the mother to stop the treatment that had been ordered during the crisis and that the mother was ignorantly continuing although convalescence was well established.

The last duty for the day was to revisit the boy with pneumonia and to see that everything was in order for the night. The child had grown worse through the day. The mother was found to be nervous and tired. The patient was still fretful and feverish even after cooling treatment. Things did not appear well. A relative was discovered who agreed to secure money and the nurse telephoned to a well-known directory for the service of a good private nurse for this one night of especial need.

* * *

This ended the day and the nurse returned to the settlement in time to freshen herself for her own dinner and evening of rest.

* * *

The days go on seemingly much alike and yet each one brings some new lesson to learn and some new problem to solve. Some times she may be called upon to urge the removal of a patient to the hospital against the wishes of the family but not always, for she tries never to forget that a large part of the hope of a man lies in his home and that the family life and family tie is worth developing.

A nurse was stopped on her rounds one morning by a woman who in broken Italian asked a visit for her sick husband. The man lay on the top floor of a rear tenement-house on a springless couch and in a most revolting condition of neglect. Two weeks before in a fit of homesickness he had begged to be taken away from the hospital that he might live his last few weeks with his wife and four children. The mother and the young daughter plied their needles with uninterrupted energy while day-light lasted. There seemed to be no connection at first with any one who could give a helping hand. The pastor of a near by church was appealed to and fresh milk and eggs were supplied. A club of down-town women, poor themselves, sent a comfortable couch and bed linen. The condition of the family was reported to the local charity organization and they promised to provide the rent while the man lived. The nurse made her visits twice daily, bringing dressings and sick-room utensils. Still the wife grew paler and thinner in the struggle to wait upon the querulous invalid and keep the little home to-

gether. It was evident that she must be either relieved of the necessity of providing for the family wants or of the care of the sick one. If she surrendered her daily portion of sewing she was in danger of losing her place in the shop in that crowded quarter where two stand ready to take the place of the one who may fall. To send the man back to the hospital would have been cruel by reason of his piteous appeals to be left at home. The happy idea came to the nurse that a woman might be hired to do the sewing and cooking for Mrs. N., and so leave her free to wait upon the invalid. When this was told the patient, his relief from the dread of the hospital was so great that he startled the nurse by falling into his first swoon. The plan was put into operation and for the last three weeks of the man's life he had the comfort of being with his children and of having his wife at his side.

* * *

One of us recently found her new patient to be a Jewish tailor suffering from severe pulmonary hemorrhage. Three men sat in the outer room talking among themselves and offering occasional observations of sympathy. The wife was in the inner room with the patient, noisy and nervous in her movements, occasionally moaning and wringing her hands. There was little for the nurse to do but when her half hour's visit was over the outer room was cleared of visitors; the wife sat by the bed-side with cracked lips and to apply to the afflicted chest. It was very little for the nurse to do—only a simple explanation of hemorrhage and the necessity for quiet, a few calm words of sympathy and strength, and the patient found the quiet that was so essential to him and the wife's nervous energy was turned into safer channels.

* * *

One morning a nurse arrived to make her accustomed visit at the bed-side of a young but feeble woman. The clergyman and a Sister had come before her and, herself a Christian, she partook of the Holy Communion with her patient. The little service was conducted with all the refinement of the Episcopal service—silver plate, fringed linen and clerical vestments, and brought peace and comfort to the sick woman.

A few hours later the nurse called to dress the cancerous hand of an old and devout Methodist. Here she found the "praying band" assembled and she waited to do her work while with much energy and simple heartiness they prayed and sang such old tunes as the one beginning,

"O happy day that fixed my choice
On Thee, my Saviour and my God.
Well may this glowing heart rejoice
And tell its raptures all abroad!"

The patient was ardently religious and a part of the nurse's daily privilege had been to sing to him some of the old-fashioned

hymns she had learned at her mother's knee. When the old man died in his ninety-second year he was sincerely missed by the nurse who had been attending him, for the daily half-hour with his simple cheeriness had often proved a help over more discouraging visits to less sunny characters.

But before this same day's work was finished, the nurse found herself sharing in a family feast of rejoicing. The old Mosaic rite of circumcision had just been performed upon the baby to whom for eight days she had given the morning bath.

The experience was not unusual, except in that the three instances occurred in one day. The contrast was great between the modern refinement of the first instance and the quaint old world aspect of the last. Each represented to each a deep spiritual meaning and made the day a marked one.

* * *

Up two dark flights of stairs in a Mott street tenement a nurse found a sick baby of six months and the mother in the last stages of consumption. The mother was an American, the father a Chinaman, who was evidently indulging the poor creature. Good furniture, an expensive baby carriage, and a servant, jewels, fine clothes for herself and the infant for all of which she showed affection.

The woman had the morphine habit. She expressed compassion for the nurse because she had no rings on her fingers, said that she would give her one of hers if she would "get her baby well," and could not understand the nurse's indifference to such adornment.

The baby lived but a few days. The nurse continued her visits to the mother, bathing her daily and doing all that she could to make her more comfortable. The patient lived for a number of weeks, growing weaker and weaker. And during that time she sent her rings to the jeweler to be made smaller as her fingers grew thin.

* * *

When Mrs. D's child was taken with pneumonia, she had only been in this country one week. The father, mother, and child came from Russia, having escaped being massacred by hiding in the cellar of their home for three days. Their goods and clothing were stolen and they reached here with nothing but the few clothes they had on.

The child was attended for about two weeks by a nurse who made two calls a day, the temperature being very high at first. Some bed clothes and a few necessities were brought to help the family through their trouble. The nurse writes: "They were so grateful for any little kindnesses shown them after suffering so much that I found it a pleasure to do anything for them. I hope to be able to keep their friendship."

Nurses' Settlements in San Francisco

Elizabeth Ashe

The pioneer nurses' settlement in San Francisco has been established for a period of eight years. On graduating from the Children's Hospital, Miss Octavine Briggs began work as a visiting nurse for the Associated Charities. The conviction soon developed that in order to accomplish all that her earnestness of purpose demanded, a permanent residence in a poor district must be maintained and all connection with organizations be severed. A house on one of the small streets of the south side was selected and furnished as a most attractive but simple home. Miss Briggs came into it with the steadfast belief in the power of real friendship to solve the problem of serving her neighbors. For a time the nursing was not brought much in evidence, thus differing from Miss Wald's initial undertaking. With the passing months Miss Briggs became a familiar friend and confidante of her neighbors and is, at present, a power in the vicinity. The population consists largely of Irish-Americans and the good effect of example is illustrated in many homes. The social work is not organized into clubs or classes but the house on Tehama Street is the center of all interests. Other nurses share in the care of the sick, Miss Briggs remaining generally in the house or little supply room, dispensing those best of gifts, true friendliness and sympathy. The boys are her staunch comrades and the future holds prospects of great civic influence and usefulness. At present one assistant is an obstetrical nurse, as Miss Briggs finds that during the mother's illness and convalescence the strongest ties with the family can be formed. She earnestly hopes that the future may make possible the establishment of similar homes in the adjacent streets. The residents of this settlement are not all nurses but work on social and neighborhood lines in accord with Miss Briggs. Appreciable results of the eight years' residence are the cleanliness of the street and the improved sanitary conditions, the city officials having thus recognized Miss Briggs' interest in the neighborhood.

Visiting nursing in the North End was initiated three years ago by the writer. For thirteen years prior to this, a Saturday morning sewing school and kitchen garden had been carried on in the Telegraph Hill district by the City Front Association, composed of volunteer workers.¹

Reorganization was effected under the name of the Telegraph Hill Neighborhood Association. Telegraph Hill is the Latin quarter of San Francisco. On its steep slopes are clustered in picturesque confusion the crowded homes of the emigrants from the Old World and up the precipitous streets the nurses must climb to find most of their work. Owing to the fact that English is rarely spoken by the women of the community, they are less easily influenced than those among whom Miss Briggs lives, and it has been found that by club and class work among the children more permanent hold can be gained over these people, who, while affectionate and impressionable, are not so stable as the residents of the south side. Clubs for boys and girls are carried on in the Neighborhood House by volunteer workers and a knowledge of the aims of the association is thus more widely diffused and its financial needs brought to the attention of the public. For more than two years the writer lived in her old home in a distant part of the city and there was no resident in the Neighborhood House. Miss Johnson, the assistant nurse, lived with a friend in a small flat in the district, thus gaining a deeper insight into underlying conditions.

A dispensary was the natural outgrowth of the needs of the neighborhood and an excellent staff of doctors is in attendance. The doctors of the district have not co-operated to any extent with the nurses, though one of their number has said that the standard of medical ethics on the hill has been raised since the nurses entered the field. Night nursing has been extensively carried on in

[The work was practically at a standstill when a needed impetus was given it by the return of Miss Ashe from New York where she had been in close touch with the Henry Street Nurses' Settlement. Miss Ashe is a graduate of the Presbyterian Hospital.—Ed.]

both the settlements. This is considered a very valuable part of the work, not only because of the great advantage to the patient but also because of the knowledge gained of the customs and characteristics of the family. Only in this manner can full realization come of the evil effects of over-crowded bedrooms and poor hygienic and sanitary conditions. The night nursing is done chiefly by outside nurses, many of whom volunteer their services. The maternity cases of the Telegraph Hill Association are cared for by the San Francisco Maternity.

The summer work of the association is carried on at the Hill Farm, maintained in Marin county. The house and cottages accommodate twenty-four convalescent women and children. Each girls' club is entertained in turn for a week and forty of the members of the boys' club, under the leadership of the head worker, J. E. Rogers, were encamped on the farm for a month. The boys assist in the farm work, learning to milk cows, care for horses and chickens, cultivate vegetables and build roads. The good results of the summer are incalculable and the effects far reaching. The attractive surroundings were much appreciated, the orderly mode of living a revelation, and night gowns a discovery. The privilege of keeping one child each in residence at the farm was given to the Children's Hospital, to the orphan asylums and to the Associated Charities. These organizations have always co-operated with the association. During the canning season assistance was given to the nurses by the opening of a day nursery by Miss R. Johnson, the sister of the assistant nurse. Through her care there was a great decrease in the diseases usually prevalent among the children during the summer, when all the mothers of the neighborhood work in the canneries from early morning until late at night.

The writer is now in residence at the Neighborhood House and under her guidance one hundred boys have organized self-governing clubs. The boys have free access to the house and out-door gymnasium without regular supervision, a course made necessary by the regretted resignation of the former head worker.

Thus far the experiment has been successful. The most popular evening in the week is that set apart for cooking, its only rival being that on which the boys' choral club joins with the girls' millinery class in a dance. This gives point to my belief that hospital training for a district nurse should include knowledge of farming, camp cooking and dancing, as well as care of the sick. The house is in almost hourly use, one interesting feature being the Mothers' Club, composed of the women who hold tickets to the clothing bureau, where old clothing is sold at a nominal price. Before the formation of this club, the women waited for hours in order to be first at the sale. This time is now spent in making new garments, the prevailing desire for night gowns and sheets showing the strong influence of the nurses. The Telegraph Hill Improvement Club, an active body of intelligent women of the district, has held its meetings in the dispensary and has co-operated with the nurses in endeavoring to secure clean streets and properly situated parks and play grounds. Though legislation is very dilatory, the supervisors of the city have displayed an intelligent endeavor to ascertain the best methods of serving the people by listening with attention to the plans laid before them. Two kindergartens are visited by the nurses where dressings are done and simple treatments given. By permission of the board of education similar work was carried on in four of the public schools, but when the board of health placed physicians in the schools, the nurses were withdrawn. Their services were immediately offered the president of the health board, and only through his lack of interest has this valuable work been rendered futile.

On the other hand, the board of health has shown its realization of the value to the city of the visiting nurses by appointing them as auxiliary health inspectors and giving them badges of office. These badges enable the wearers to inspect tenements and authorize them to serve first notices on the landlords. There is mutual co-operation between the juvenile court and the settlements in all serious cases, the judge and probation officers applying to the nurses for infor-

mation and aid in regard to delinquent and dependent children from their respective districts.

The settlement's plans for the future are varied, the one nearest to the hearts of the nurses being a small free hospital in the district. The people are distrustful of the large institutions and

rebel against sending their sick to a distance. It is believed that if a hospital could be established in the immediate neighborhood, where the mother could be near her child, these objections would decrease and much good, which present conditions render impossible, be made practicable.

The Nurses' Settlement in Richmond, Virginia

The Nurses' Settlement in Richmond was opened in 1901 for social work of a neighborly character combined with nursing, by a Johns-Hopkins nurse and seven friends from the Old Dominion Hospital. Nearly a year later, a regular system of visiting or district nursing was added to the activities of the house to meet the urgent demands for this service, not only from the patients and their families, but also from various bands of charity and sanitary workers in the city, both secular and religious.

The nurses who had first taken residence were almost all engaged in private duty, but between their cases they had volunteered for service to the poor, and in this way special nursing has been supplied in a number of cases, both in institutions and in the homes.

The motives underlying this movement toward social helpfulness were not easily understood in the community, for though there were numerous evidences of the same spirit in charitable and religious organizations, the form was such a new thing that for some time it was difficult to give the people in general a correct interpretation of the aims and objects of the workers.

The district nursing has aided greatly in this interpretation, and has likewise procured for the workers the material appreciation of the townspeople. At a recent meeting Professor Ames of Baltimore, delivered an address in which he emphasized the importance of the intelligent co-operation of trained nurses in matters relating to the care of the public health and the development of sanitary departments under city government. The physicians of Richmond corroborated all that he said and highly commended the work of the settlement

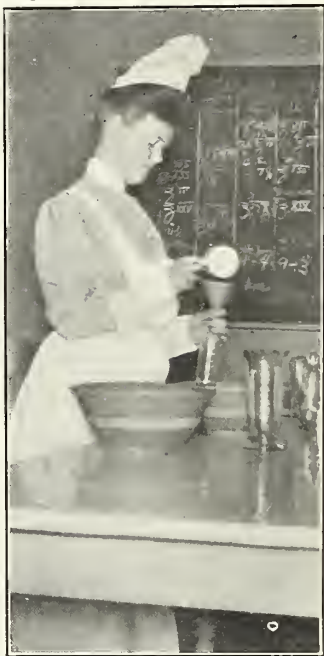
nurses from the standpoint of progressive civic development.

The settlement is affiliated with all of the charity and civic improvement societies and with the association for waging war on tuberculosis. Many of these affiliations, indeed have been brought about by the efforts of the settlement members, who at an early date provided rooms in their dwelling to be rented by charitable societies. The nurses have conducted classes in home nursing, mothers' clubs, boys' and girls' clubs, gymnasium classes, a diet kitchen and a loan closet. The members are appealed to for any and every kind of work; from making provision for providing companions for decrepit old ladies and gentlemen, to supplying statistics for the anti-tuberculosis league and the gathering of details relative to the compulsory education act. Some of their most arduous work has been given to the task of educating public opinion as to the desirability of providing separate institutions for the feeble-minded and the insane, and state custody for the dependent feeble-minded. An earnest and practical attempt to introduce reformation into the nursing service of the city almshouse hospital was one of the first endeavors of the settlement workers, but this encountered the opposition of local political workers. Not four years ago, the members of the group were regarded in the city of Richmond as a band of ascetics, whose opinions and works, though most likely of no consequence, could not be generally understood and so must never be approved; but to-day, it is safe to say, they possess the confidence of hundreds of humble homes and the cordial co-operation of all the varied associations of Richmond.

The Orange Visiting Nurses' Settlement

Margaret H. Pierson

This settlement was organized in Orange, New Jersey, in September, 1900, and it was a distinct outgrowth of the visiting nursing which has always been a department in the curriculum of the Orange Training School for Nurses. In 1880, when the school was in its infancy, those early days when training schools were few and far between, it was soon discovered that the hospital did not furnish patients sufficient for the full training of a nurse. Consequently the physicians who were interested in developing every possible avenue of training for the nurse, began to call for pupils to go for hourly nursing to interesting cases outside the hospital. A large proportion of these cases were maternity patients, a class at that time not provided for in the hospital. The superintendent of the school accompanied her pupils and kept a general supervision of the work. It shortly became impossible for the superintendent to continue this personal inspection, and the work gradually fell into the hands of her assistants. The value and necessity of this branch of work for the training it offered pupil nurses steadily increased, and in 1898 its supervision was given into the hands of a graduate nurse who found, after a year's experience, that visiting nursing should have a home of its own if the best results were to be reached. The necessarily irregular hours of the nurses' work, and the perpetual calls for assistance, made too great encroachments on the facilities of the Nurses' Home. She felt too that she could come more closely into touch with her patients if she lived



Preparing modified milk.

among them and shared with them the external conditions of their lives. Thus from experience was the settlement idea awakened, and neighborhood sympathy aroused. The nurse succeeded in enkindling similar sympathy in others. A friend offered to give to a nurses' settlement the financial backing it required for the first year. Another, a physician of many long years' experience among all sorts and conditions of men, saw clearly, at the close of his own life of singular usefulness, the great possibilities of developing visiting nursing from a settlement centre. Taking a tenement house which he owned in a thickly populated factory district, he added to it a large wing, fitted it with good plumbing, a bath, steam heating and made it in all respects a building adapted to the work, and a comfortable home for the workers. The Training School board of governors thereupon transferred the branch of visiting nursing to this house.

From the first the house took the name "settlement," and from that day to this it has been worthy of its title. for, although no attempt is made to do the usual valuable club work of other settlements, happily in this instance unnecessary owing to its proximity to the Valley Social Settlement, a true neighborliness is the spirit of the house. Scarcely a day passes when some neighbor does not come for help or advice. Then, too, the demands on the nurse come too irregularly and often too heavily to allow time, strength or energy for much besides professional activity.

The family consists of a head worker,

a graduate nurse, her assistant, also a graduate nurse, whose especial duty is the training of two pupil nurses who come for two months' residence at the settlement at the end of their hospital training. She frequently accompanies her pupils on their rounds, always directing difficult branches of the work. Another resident is the graduate nurse in charge of the work directed by the anti-tuberculosis committee. This committee is composed of representatives from the leading charitable organizations of the city. The nurse is paid by the Orange Training School Alumnae Association, and the Orange Branch of the Guild of St. Barnabas. Her time is not exclusively employed in the tuberculosis work and she relieves the settlement nursing by taking charge of some of the difficult chronic cases—those sad sufferers to be found in every community against whom, owing to their frightful affliction, even hospital doors are closed, who must linger on in helpless misery and who welcome the visit of a nurse as the one bright spot in the day. In our settlement this particular resident is the connecting link which brings the other members of the family into touch with the progressive world's work in the warfare against the dread white plague.

Another resident is the instructor in domestic science from Simmons College, Boston, whose particular responsibility is the teaching of both practical and theoretical dietetics to pupils of the Orange Training School. Pupils are sent from the school for one month's study in this branch. Under perpetual supervision, with the aid of one little maid, the pupils prepare all the food for the settlement family of twelve. They go to market with their teacher and learn the cuts of meat and their relative nutritious value as well as the cost of food. Later they learn the value and the method of dainty serving and the art of preparing family menus that preserve the balance necessary to health. Under this same supervision is a milk dispensary where milk is modified according to a physician's formula, and then sold at cost price (ten cents a daily feeding), to ailing infants in the neighborhood. Thus the dispensary is of two-fold value—as labora-

tory for pupil nurses and in placing a necessary luxury within reach of the babies of the poor. Here too is Koumyss prepared and sold at nominal prices (ten cents a bottle).

The other members of the settlement family are five graduate nurses engaged in private nursing, one graduate doing hourly nursing, and two trained attendants. They all rent rooms at the settlement and receive calls through its agency. There is also a maid and laundress. The settlement now includes a neighboring house, the first floor of which is rented to a day nursery. One room is also rented to a doctor who practices in the neighborhood, an association which proves of mutual value.

To turn now from the family to the work accomplished, a recent report shows that during the past twenty-one months 9,277 visits were made on all kinds of non-contagious cases, including 124 surgical operations. Sixty physicians have been benefited by the services of the house. Two rooms deserve special mention as they are of great value in the work—one, a supply closet, well stocked with clothing and sick-room comforts, waiting for service in the homes of the poor; the other is a first aid room where children are sent by their teachers in a neighboring public school for the nurse's advice in doubtful troubles, or her help in minor cuts or bruises. Here, too, come neighbors for advice on many subjects, and for salve for many wounds.¹

The value of school nursing, done in this small way, has been very recently recognized by the board of education, with the result that a regular school nurse has been appointed from the settlement, who will shortly introduce this work of evident usefulness into the Orange public schools.

The experience of five years has but proved the wisdom of the intention of the first workers in this settlement, that institutionalism should be avoided, for the sake of the work, because the value of this effort is peculiarly personal, and

¹ [A request has recently come from the trustees of the ambulance for a nurse to aid in the removal of patients from their homes to the hospital, and it is believed that this is but another opportunity to broaden the usefulness of this house.]



The two settlement houses, Orange, N. J.

the service which comes from the privacy of a home must be more acceptable than that which passes through the medium of committees. For the sake of the workers as well, the home life is important for the women engaged in district nursing have an especial need of the quiet and cheerful environment of a home, where the rest and peace can be found which will prepare them to meet the terrible realities of life awaiting them in their chosen work.

The social and intellectual needs of the family are also recognized and met by occasional lectures and receptions in the pleasant living room (formerly an Italian butcher shop), where too the Training School Alumnae Association sometimes gathers for business and recreation. Here also occurs the neighborhood event of the year, the Christmas celebration.

One quiet bedroom is rented by the Guild of St. Barnabas, where a tired nurse may rest for a few days at a nominal cost for board. The settlement has never become incorporated, and there is no organized board of managers. A friend, who has the confidence of the public, acts as treasurer, pays the bills and receives donations, and annually issues an itemized printed report. All the details of the work are planned by the head worker and one non-resident worker, and executed by the head worker alone. A monthly report of the work of the pupil nurses is given to the superintendent and committee of the training school.

The value of visiting nursing has become too apparent to any longer need expression, and many methods are evolving for its development. By experience we continue to believe that a settlement is the best center for this work. True settlement spirit is ever a force for good in a neighborhood, as well as an inspiration to the worker. Another and important reason in favor of this method of developing visiting nursing is an economic one; it offers great opportunities for self-support. This particular settlement has an income from its own resources which pays three-quarters of its expenses, and there is no difficulty in finding friends glad to supply the small deficit for such a many-sided work. The income is derived from the small fees collected for professional services, a majority of the patients are able and glad to pay something, and gratuitous service is rendered with equal willingness when required. Sub-letting rooms is another important means of revenue, and there are besides many ways in which small sums come into the treasury which benefit both giver and receiver.

A house devoted exclusively to settlement purposes can offer the helping hand to neighborhood problems impossible for the private individual. For instance, two years ago there was an apparent need for an orthopaedic clinic. Money was raised for the working expenses, and a room was opened in the settlement for the first clinic. This was crowded with patients, a neighboring house was shortly converted into a min-

ture hospital ward and the residents combined to meet the emergency. Within a few months the need for a permanent hospital was demonstrated, and the children were established in a suitable building. In the same way a day nursery was opened, and later passed on for permanent provision.

Perhaps the strongest plea of all for the value of a nurses' settlement is that it is the legitimate channel for the conservation of an important and very valuable factor in the public weal. College and university settlements furnish opportunities to their alumni for the study of sociological conditions with the object of sharing the results of their own collegiate training with the less fortunate. The nurses' settlement offers a

many-sided opportunity of wonderful economic value for the sharing of the fruits of professional training with suffering humanity. This opportunity comes to the paid worker by broadening her own experience through association with other workers, and thus increasing the measure of her own usefulness. It comes alike to the nurse unable perhaps to devote much time to altruistic pursuits, but who desires to share something of her priceless experience with the less fortunate. Here is the opportunity for hourly service of real value, for seldom is the time when a settlement does not know of some poor soul who can be made more comfortable by a sympathetic nurse.

Special Lines of District Nursing

The Visiting Nurse for Tuberculosis

M. A. Nutting

Superintendent of Nurses and Principal of Training School, Johns Hopkins Hospital

The first attempt in this country, so far as the writer can discover, to do special, systematic visiting of tuberculosis patients in their homes was made in Baltimore in the year 1899,—not by nurses, but by women medical students, partly for purposes of education and relief, and partly for investigation. Under Dr. Osler's direction these two students followed to their homes the consumptive patients coming to the Johns Hopkins Hospital Dispensary, teaching them just how to carry out the directions of the physician in regard to fresh air, diet, and disposal of sputum. At the same time the students reported to the Charity Organization Society any need for special diet, and to the Board of Health all unsanitary conditions. The results proved interesting, and in a brief account of some features of the first year's efforts¹ the suggestion was then made that if nurses could undertake this branch of work and carry it on regularly and

systematically, bringing their special training to bear upon some of the practical problems, very effective work could be done in this particular field. An appeal was made to friends interested in the subject to provide a nurse for this especial purpose, and two years later, in November, 1903, the funds were provided and a nurse finally took over the work from the medical students, beginning a regular daily system of visiting.

In the meantime the usefulness of the special nurse for tuberculosis had apparently been recognized in New York, and during the winter of 1902-03 we find the Charity Organization Society, in planning out its campaign against tuberculosis, making provision for a district nurse; while a little later such work was begun at the Vanderbilt Clinic by a nurse, Miss Lilius Savage, a graduate of the Presbyterian Training School. After a period of ten weeks, during which one hundred cases were visited, and looked after, the work at this clinic was regular-

¹ American Journal of Nursing, June, 1901.

ly taken up by Miss Grace Forman, who had previously worked under the auspices of the Charity Organization Society, and whose name will be identified with the earliest efforts made by nurses in special work for tuberculosis. During the same winter the Department of Health in New York established a staff of visiting nurses, and through the kindness of Dr. J. S. Billings, Jr., chief of the division of communicable diseases of that department, the writer has been furnished with the brief statement concerning their work, which follows:—

The New York Department of Health was the pioneer in this and all other countries in the campaign against tuberculosis. As a logical extension of the work, a staff of nurses was organized in March, 1903, to assist in the supervision and prevention of this disease in the Borough of Manhattan. Three nurses were appointed at salaries of \$900 a year, their duties at first consisting of the supervision of selected advanced cases, the furnishing of instructions as to the prevention of the spread of the disease, supplying spit cups, etc. The field of their work rapidly widened, it being found that properly qualified nurses were peculiarly adapted to the supervision of home cases of pulmonary tuberculosis. Eventually the care of all home cases was assigned to nurses, the force being added to as necessity arose. With the extension of the work to the other boroughs of the city, still further additions became necessary.

In 1903, 3 nurses made 5,028 inspections.

In 1904, 7 nurses made 17,321 inspections.

In 1905, 14 nurses made 26,115 inspections.

In March, 1904, a tuberculosis clinic was opened in Manhattan and four nurses assigned to duty there—one taking histories—and one each in the male, female, and throat clinic rooms. At present (January 1, 1906), there are nineteen nurses doing work in connection with tuberculosis, they being assigned as follows: Manhattan, district, 9; clinic, 4; Brooklyn, 4; Bronx, 1; Queens and Richmond, 1. Two of the clinic nurses are hospital nurses at \$480 a year. They should receive the same salary as the others. With the opening of tuberculosis clinics in Brooklyn and the Bronx more nurses will be necessary. Over 30,000 cases of tuberculosis were reported in New York city during 1905. To properly care for the cases among the poor, double the number of nurses could be advantageously employed. At present the cases kept under observation can be visited only once a week.

At the present date such statistics as have been obtainable show, inclusive of the above, thirty-four nurses solely occupied in the house-

to-house visitation of tuberculous patients. They are commonly found working directly under hospital or dispensary authorities, even when their salaries are supplied through private sources. In three cities they are working under the auspices of visiting nurse associations, and in one instance the nurse is provided by the Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis.

It is perhaps natural to expect, as the accompanying table shows, that about two-thirds of the entire number should be found in New York.¹

<i>Under the auspices of</i>	<i>No. Nurses.</i>	<i>Date of beginning</i>
<i>New York—</i>		
Department of Health.....	19	Mar., 1903
Vanderbilt Clinic.	2	Mar., 1903
Bellevue Dispensary.	3	July, 1904
<i>Philadelphia—</i>		
Henry Phipps Dispensary.....	2	
<i>Baltimore—</i>		
Phipps Dispensary, Johns Hopkins Hospital.	1	Dec., 1903
Visiting Nurses' Association...	1	Mar., 1904
<i>Cleveland—</i>		
Visiting Nurses' Association...	1	July, 1904
<i>Saginaw—</i>		
Saginaw General Hospital....	1	Feb., 1905
<i>Grand Rapids—</i>		
Anti-Tuberculosis Committee...	1	Dec., 1905
<i>Orange—</i>		
Anti-Tuberculosis Committee...	1	July, 1904
<i>Toronto, Canada—</i>		
Toronto General Hospital....	1	Dec., 1905
<i>Ottawa, Canada—</i>		
Association for Prevention of Tuberculosis	1	May, 1905

It is of interest to learn of various ways in which nurses for this work are maintained. In certain instances, while working under hospital authorities, they are supported by private funds; as, for instance, in the Phipps Dispensary of the Johns Hopkins Hospital, where the Marie Bloede Nurse for Tuberculosis was established as a memorial of a relative. In Orange the salary of the tuberculosis nurse is paid by nurses,—the alumnae of the Orange Training School, and the Orange Branch of the St. Barnabas Guild. At the recent meeting of the Maryland State Association of Graduate Nurses the members pledged themselves to the support of a nurse for this work for a period. The support of an additional nurse for tuberculosis is on the program which the Maryland State Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis has mapped out for its year's work, and considering that two nurses are at the

¹ [The writer, by request, has omitted Chicago from this list, as the work there is included in the paper of the Chicago Visiting Nurses' Association.]

present moment trying to look after five hundred tuberculous patients in Baltimore, the help of many such agencies will be needed before the field is covered.

Early Work in Edinburgh.

But while the first special efforts toward the instruction of the tuberculous patient in his home were made in 1899, we must not overlook the vast amount of useful work done for these patients by all visiting and district nurses for the last ten years in the course of their regular daily rounds.

It is exceedingly interesting to find, however, that the very earliest work in this direction was done not in this country, but in Edinburgh, and is described as follows in a report of the International Home Relief Congress held in Edinburgh in 1904:

In Edinburgh, in 1887, R. U. Philip, M. D., senior physician to the Victoria Hospital for consumption, succeeded in establishing the Victoria Dispensary for consumptives in the heart of Edinburgh. Its effect was to afford a central institution toward which all poor persons affected with consumption might be directed. The scope of the institution was a large one and included:

a. The reception and examination of patients at the dispensary and the keeping of a record of every one thus received, with an account of his illness, history, surroundings and present condition, the record being added to on each subsequent visit.

b. The instruction of patients how to treat themselves and how to prevent or minimize the risk of infection to others.

c. The dispensing of necessary medicines, disinfectants and sputum bottles, and, where the family conditions seemed to warrant it, of food stuffs and the like.

d. The visitation of patients at their own homes, more especially of patients confined to the house or to bed, and this for the double purpose of treatment and investigation into the state of dwelling, and general conditions of life and the risk of infection to others in the neighborhood.

e. The selection of more likely patients for hospital treatment, either of early cases for sanatoria, or of late cases, for some institution for incurables.

f. The guidance generally of patients, and friends of patients, and other inquirers on questions related to consumption.

This programme has been carried out during the last seventeen years by a staff of willing colleagues, nurses and a samaritan committee of ladies, all of whom have taken part not merely in the general work of the dispensary, but have especially undertaken the surveillance of consumptive patients in their own homes. In addition to the routine

work of the dispensary more detailed investigations have been carried out from time to time with a view to ascertaining the distribution of the disease in the city. These investigations include at the present time a systematic record as to the home conditions of the patient according to the accompanying schedule, the inquiry being carefully undertaken at the patient's home by a trained nurse, who visits with a view to assist the patient under the superintendence of one of the medical officers.

SCHEDULE OF INQUIRY REGARDING DISPENSARY PATIENTS.

No.	in Ledger.	Date of Report.
	Name	
	Address	
	Occupation?	Has patient changed occupation?
	Ability to work full time?	Or part time?
	If unable, confined to bed?	
	How long ill?	
	Situation of house (area, ground, floor, 1st. etc.)?	
	Number and age of inmates?	
	Number and description of rooms?	
	General aspect of house (clean, damp, dusty, smelly)?	
	Number of windows?	
	Are they kept open—(a) by day? (b) by night?	
	Have they always been kept open?	
	Does patient sleep alone—(a) in bed?	
	(b) in room?	
	How is washing of clothes done?	
	How long in present house?	
	If he has removed within two years,—previous addresses?	
	Have there been illnesses or deaths in house—	
	(a) In own time?	
	(b) In previous occupancy?	
	Exposed to infection—	
	(a) At home?	
	(b) At work?	
	(c) Among friends?	
	Present health of other members of household?	
	What precautions taken to disinfect?	
	Tubercle bacilli in sputum?	
	Tubercle bacilli in dust of room?	
	General dietary? Total?	
	General condition (well to do, badly off)?	
	Proximate income of household?	
	Assisted by societies, church, friends, rates?	
	Signed.....Reporter.	
	Medical Officer.	

In connection with the dispensary is a nurse trained in modern open-air methods, who visits the homes and makes most of the inquiries. She is under supervision of the medical man who in conference with a volunteer samaritan committee of ladies, take in charge the most distressing cases with a view to assist in any way that seems proper under the circumstances.

When in 1902 the Johns Hopkins medical students before referred to, made a report of the 726 cases of tuberculosis in Baltimore which they had visited and studied in the time they could spare from their school work, they reported conditions with which every district nurse is familiar,—bad sanitation, overcrowding, personal and household uncleanliness, lack of light and ventilation.

But their investigation brought out other important facts; the frequency, for instance, with which the patients moved from one house or place to another. The 726 patients had during their illnesses occupied 935 houses. In the last year 183 patients had occupied 379 houses. Of course there was no fumigating or cleaning of these infected houses before the entrance of a new occupant. Another important fact noted was the large number of patients (about two-thirds), who did not sleep alone. In this brief summary of conditions, typical in a general way of all localities and homes where tuberculosis prevails, one finds convincing evidence of the fact confirmed a thousand times over from other sources and in other ways, that the warfare against consumption must be largely carried on in the homes. That the best existing agency for reaching these homes and bringing into them the needed knowledge and relief is the visiting nurse, is beyond question. Whether the nurse works under the title of inspector, as do the nurses of the Department of Health in New York, or simply as a visiting nurse, does not greatly affect the main issue, which is that there must be a widespread, well-directed continuous effort to get into the homes, minds and lives of these people a knowledge of what they must do to be saved, and the trained, paid worker is the one force for this purpose at present to be found or depended upon.

The ground which these nurses cover is, first, education; second, relief; the patient is instructed how to live, how to take care of himself, how to take care of others about him, dear to him; what care to take of his sputum; what to eat, what not to eat, where and how to sleep, how to get fresh air, what kind of clothing to wear; when to rest, when to exercise safely. He is encouraged to believe that his recovery rests upon his efforts, and that the safety of his family is in his hands, and he is visited, advised, and watched over from week to week. If he has been obliged to sleep with others, provision is usually made for a separate bed; and bed and bedding are often supplied. Sometimes small tents are put up

in the yards; porches, roofs, fire-escapes are utilized, and have the advantage of preventing loss of heat in rooms where it might be needed. The question of food, where the patient cannot afford enough of the right kind, is answered generously by the dispensaries, the Charity Organization Society, and a number of other agencies, and an immense amount is supplied, though seldom as much we are told, as is required. Bellevue Dispensary in New York provides a patient on the doctor's prescription with fourteen quarts of milk weekly and with three dozen eggs.

**The Ingenuity
of the
Visiting Nurse.**

One is struck with the ingenuity shown in the efforts to get the patient into the fresh air and keep him there. Again roofs, fire-escapes, porches and tents come into play together with wheeling chairs, steamer chairs and hammocks, and one hears of a nurse being provided with five hundred street car tickets to be used liberally in getting those out to whom fresh air would otherwise be denied. And there is liberal response to requests made by nurses for warm clothing for those obliged to remain out of doors long hours. The ingenious nurse deserves commendation who, when her patient complained of dampness out of doors and the great weight of clothing necessary to keep him warm, made bed covers of thick paper, flour bags between two layers of cloth. As to economic relief, the provision, for instance, of some equivalent for the wage-earner's salary while he takes the enforced and required rest, much can be and is done. The United Hebrew Charities, which looks so well after those of their own faith and are constantly spoken of for this by the nurses, were, in one city, paying rent for thirty-six families among the tuberculous patients of one visiting nurse. Again the Charity Organization Society, the Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor are to the fore, supplying needs and even talking of a special relief fund for this particular purpose.

A curious concession to the nurse is reported from a town where the law requires the placarding of all houses where

communicable diseases are found. The local health board here gave permission to omit the placard where the visiting nurse was in charge of the case.

Of the very gravest importance is the matter of fumigation and disinfection of houses following death or removal. Attention has been called to the way in which these patients move from house to house, leaving infected quarters behind. A frequent complaint of the tuberculosis nurse at work in a large district in which visits must necessarily be infrequent, is that she has "lost her patient," meaning not that he has died, but that he has in the interval since she last saw him moved to other quarters. One sometimes feels that it would take the combined efforts of a most active, not to say aggressive board of health, a vigilant nurse and the entire police force to keep watch over the migrating body, and prepare their deserted premises for fit human occupation. The house needs cleaning as much as disinfection, and one sometimes indulges in a dream of a time when a sort of civic house-cleaning force will follow with bucket and broom, the formaldehyde lamp. Sometimes only the room in which the patient has died is disinfected, despite the fact that for effectual work disinfection is almost equally needed in all of the rooms in which he has stayed in his wanderings about the house. The tragic result of moving into an infected house where there had been no attempt at fumigation came under the writer's notice last year, when almost the entire family of a respected employe of an institution was wiped out within a few months. The mother and four children died one after the other of consumption, and it was considered that they had contracted the disease in the house into which they had moved shortly after the death of the former occupant, in an advanced stage of consumption.

While some of the nurses engaged in this work look upon it as absolutely and solely for the future, there are others who feel they are doing quite an appreciable amount of useful work

For To-day
and for
the Future.

for to-day. The nurse who finds week after week that not only windows of the house in which she visits are kept open for the fresh air, but that the neighbor across the street has become interested in the matter and followed suit, that the general cleanliness of the entire place has improved markedly, that she has really had a definite effect upon the way of living of the entire family (and often of the neighbors) in teaching some of the simple laws of health—even when she only feels that she has had some influence in keeping the patient and family from undue depression and discouragement,—believes that the day's work holds something of immediate good, even though the best results can only come in the future. In a recent letter to the writer, Dr. Edward Trudeau, writing from Saranac, says:

In regard to my opinion of the value of the district or dispensary nurse in the combat with tuberculosis, I have always felt that the nurse's visit to the house and her personal contact with the people were *essential* to any degree of success in diminishing infection in the home. * * * She brings to the health officer knowledge of places where her instructions are either inadvertently or willfully neglected, a knowledge which is essential that he should have if he is to apply more stringent remedies. People who won't go to lectures, won't read, and won't do anything they hear from their associates they ought to do, will gather around a nurse in their own homes and appreciate at once how simple are the measures necessary for their protection. I think the dispensary nurse a most indispensable weapon in this great warfare, and that she perhaps accomplishes more in practical prevention than any other one agency.

This brief account of the development of this special form of effort in meeting the tuberculosis problem can hardly be more appropriately closed than by quoting Dr. Osler from the *Medical News* of December 12, 1903, page 1105.

In its most important aspects the problem of tuberculosis is a home problem. In an immense proportion of all cases the scene of the drama is the home; on its stage the acts are played * * *. The battlefield of tuberculosis is not in the hospitals or in the sanitarium, but in the homes where practically the disease is born and bred. * * * Probably not two per cent of such cases can take advantage of sanitarium or climatic treatment. What has our new knowledge to say to the remaining ninety-eight per cent?

Hourly Nursing

As done by the Johns Hopkins Nurses' Alumnae Association

Anna E. Rutherford

General Secretary Henry Watson Children's Aid Society, Baltimore

In every city there are numbers of persons needing the skilled care of a trained nurse for perhaps an hour or more each day. In order to get it they ordinarily must employ a nurse for twenty-four hours, pay her \$25 per week and provide her with a room and her board. She soon becomes an expensive luxury to the patient and an embarrassment to herself; it worries her to be doing so little to earn the money and she cannot afford to give her whole time for less. In order to meet this condition, the Johns Hopkins Nurses' Alumnae Association in 1898 decided to guarantee a nurse her salary and in that way make it possible to begin the work of hourly or visiting nursing for such patients. Circulars were sent out to physicians, druggists, clergymen and others interested in the public good of the city, stating that on and after October 24 the association would hold itself in readiness to send nurses to any part of Baltimore city at the rate of fifty cents per hour. The calls were to be sent to the nurses' registry. The money to make the start was raised by establishing a memorial fund to which several hundred dollars were subscribed by friends in memory of relatives. One of the members of the association volunteered her services for six months, only asking that her actual expenses be paid. During that first six months the average receipts were \$45 per month. Since that time seven nurses have been in charge of the work with varying success. The greatest number of visits paid during a given year was 1,849, and the receipts were \$1,024, an average of \$85 per month.

Since 1900 the work has been entirely self-supporting, averaging \$73 per month. The nurse is paid \$60 per month and her carfare, and all of the money received is paid into the treasury of the association. In April, 1902, the charge was raised to seventy-five cents per hour before six P. M. and one dollar per hour after six P. M. to all who could

afford it. All kinds of people have used the hourly nurse. The doctor who needed a nurse in his office for an hour or two for a minor operation, or who was called to an emergency obstetrical case, with the nurse regularly engaged out of reach for the next few hours and no one to whom he could turn; the post-operative patient who was ready to leave the hospital but who still needed skilled hands to do the surgical dressing; the chronic invalid with kind friends to do much for him, but whose whole day and night was changed by the hour morning and evening when the bath and rub were skillfully given; the woman living in a boarding house with no room for a regular nurse, and to whom the expense of paying a nurse for her full time and the boarding house for her board would have been out of the question; the regular nurse tired out with a long case, unable to get out of the house without a responsible nurse in charge; the careful, timid mother with a sick child needing some one with experience to come in and carry out some special order or care for the child while she did a necessary errand and got the fresh air; the nervous woman shrinking from having her own loved ones dress the chronic sores;—all of these have been glad to welcome the "hourly nurse." She comes in to them, bringing with her the freshness and cheer of the outside world, and is usually able to leave with them enough ideas to keep them busy until her return.

The need for the hourly nurse is without question. The problem is, how shall we bring the need and the nurse together? We feel this is best done either through an alumnae association such as ours, or through some woman's club or society. An association lends a certain dignity to the work; it can advertise as a nurse working on her own responsibility cannot. The responsibility of the association gives continuity; if the nurse is unable to go on with the work the public knows the association will pro-

vide another. A nurses' association or registry is the natural place for the public to go in search of help in times of illness, and if the hourly nurse has her headquarters there many persons hear of her who otherwise would have been obliged to do without her.

Secure a woman as nurse who is not only skilled in her profession but who loves humanity, let the doctors and the public know where she is to be found, and as a rule she will make her way.

Do not expect her to make great numbers of visits each day; unless the area over which she works is very small, six is about all she can do and if more than an hour is required, four or five. We have known nurses to make ten or eleven visits each day, but that was because they drew the day out to 11 P. M. and no nurse can stand that very long.

An average of five visits per day at fifty cents each for a month gives seventy-five dollars. Just as soon as the work justifies it, employ two nurses.

They can relieve each other, and can more than double the efficiency of the work. When the public finds that no calls are unanswered, the calls will increase rapidly. When two nurses cannot be regularly employed, arrangements should be made with a nurses' registry to send out nurses from the end of the list rather than allow the calls to go unfilled.

Speaking of this work from the standpoint of a nurse who has had a year's experience as an hourly nurse, it is the most delightful the profession has to offer. The out-of-door life is healthful; the confidence of the patients and the many little difficulties to overcome, stimulate to one's best efforts. The constant variety of patients and patients' friends takes away all monotony; gives one the best of opportunities to know human nature; and the delight of bringing help and cheer to so many is a satisfaction to our best selves.

The Crerar Nursing Fund

Idora Rose, Superintendent Illinois Training School for Nurses

It is a lamentable fact that many patients are deprived of the services of trained nurses because unable to meet the financial obligations entailed by such service. Many families must be denied because the wage earner receives a salary which only provides a living, but does not permit laying aside for the proverbial "rainy day." In a city the size of Chicago, there is a large majority of such families.

In 1892, John Crerar bequeathed \$50,000 to the Illinois Training School for Nurses, not specifying any particular use it should serve. The board of managers, a body of philanthropic women, decided to use the interest of this money, which they called the "Crerar Fund," to pay for nurses in families, able to pay part, but not all the charges of a nurse.

In sending a request for a Crerar nurse, physicians are required to state the income of the family to which the patient belongs and the occupation of its working members. As a safeguard against imposition, one reference must be given in addition to that of the phy-

sician, this reference preferably the employer of those on salary.

Payments for the nurse's services must be made weekly, and this amount is not less than \$7 nor more than \$10 per week. The nurse receives \$20 per week for Crerar nursing, and the remainder of this sum, above what the patient pays, comes out of the fund.

These nurses are not sent to charity cases, as that field is covered by the Visiting Nurses' Association. Neither are they sent to contagious cases. There is more need for them in obstetrical work. They are not sent out of the city, as the field is so large and the number of nurses limited by the funds available. Any graduate of the school may be sent out to do this work, and inasmuch as she receives but \$20 per week, it is considered in part charity work. In many homes the nurse is called upon to do all sorts of things besides nursing, especially when the mother of the family is the patient and the family too poor to hire other help.

School Children and Their Medical Supervision

John J. Cronin, M.D.

Department of Health, New York

Lack of proper supervision of school children by school physicians under the health authorities of a community is almost criminal neglect.

Here is the history of a boy—told me by the principal on a recent visit to a public school. The case came up for discussion due to a previous talk on the subject of physical examination of school children and its advantages from an educational standpoint:

The boy was three classes below the grade for children of his age. He was in a class of boys who amused themselves by pestering him. His work in school was particularly bad and stupid. He seemed to have a defensive attitude at all times. He had been pushed along in school to see if something might not be accomplished. The result was "nil."

The assistant principal requested the principal for permission to handle the case. She visited the home of the child and learned that the boy was pounded and whipped by father and mother until he had no spirit left; then the boys of his class started in at the time the parents left off and the teachers added a little more trying to force the child to greater effort to study. Such was the opportunity of this child to absorb knowledge! The assistant principal threatened the parents that whipping the boy must be stopped or she would have them arrested. This was effective, and stopped the whipping at home. Next, the boy was changed to a class of girls of the same grade. The report from here was "His progress is marvelous."

So much for what relief of external influence may accomplish. After this recital, the boy was brought to me and catechised by the assistant principal, who constantly said, "Now, Ben, the teacher is looking at you; look at the teacher" and he would make a strenuous effort to do as requested; but then he would convulsively look away.

When the principal was through with the boy, he was dismissed. I said to her, "Now you see that is the sort of boy

where the physical examination of the child would clear up mysteries. You have succeeded in clearing up external and home influences that work against the child, but you miss the points that are of much more an obstruction to the child's progress in studies, and which exist in the boy himself. For instance, the boy has chorea—St. Vitus dance. You ask him to look at you; he does so for an instant; then the choreic twitch turns his eyes away from you. The boy does not breathe properly; his mouth is always open; he has growths behind his nose, and large tonsils that interfere with proper breathing and therefore his blood is not sufficiently oxygenized. He is ill nourished."

A physical examination confirmed the snap diagnosis and further showed that letters that should be read at a distance of 100 feet, could be read only at twenty feet with the right eye and letters that should be read at a distance of sixty feet, could be read only at a distance of twenty feet with the left eye.

This is just one example cited. There are thousands of the same kind.

I am often asked what was the particular reason that led to the adoption of physical examination of the school child as a feature of the medical inspection as carried on in the public schools of New York.

The following reasons are suggestive:

1. The employment of professional skill for the perfunctory duty of looking after the condition of the children's eyes and heads day after day seemed a waste of professional labor.

2. The fact that there was constant complaint that certain high percentage of children was backward in studies; that another number were truants; that certain children were deprived of school time by every epidemic of contagion that happened to occur; this led to an investigation of the physical condition of school children. About ninety per cent. of backward incorrigible and truant children were found physically imperfect as regards their eyes, ears, nose, throat, nutrition, locomotive apparatus and other general bodily functions. Sixty per cent. of all school children are defective to a greater or lesser degree.

One such example as that cited is sufficient to endorse the system.

Inspectors should be assigned to each school.

They should first examine:

1. All cases suspected of having contagion.

2. All cases absent for a few days.

3. All cases excluded.

They should visit all absentees who are reported sick and whose names are not reported as having contagious disease.

Then after this work should begin the routine physical examination of children. Our labor now bestowed on school children is the best investment for a community, as the amount of percent. of money invested will always increase in the low mortality of the city and the expenses will decrease, as less money will be needed for contagious hospitals, relief, fumigations, etc.

The examination of school children as now conducted considers the nutrition of child, presence or absence of enlarged glands, nervous diseases, cardiac, and pulmonary disease, skin disease, defect of the locomotive apparatus, defective vision, hearing, teeth, palate, hypertrophied tonsils, adenoid growths of naso-pharynx, mentality, and particularly does it require whether treatment is considered necessary or not.

A summarized report of examinations made from March 27, 1905, to December 31, 1905, inclusive, is as follows:

Bad nutrition	3,283
Enlarged anterior glands	14,214
Enlarged posterior glands.....	3,047
Chorea	738
Cardiac disease.....	895
Pulmonary disease	600
Skin disease	989
Deformity of spine.....	485
Deformity of chest.....	401
Deformity of extremities.....	498
Defective vision (objective).....	16,394
Defective vision (subjective).....	
Defective hearing	1,296
Defective nasal breathing.....	6,182
Defective teeth	18,182
Defective palate	698
Hypertrophied tonsil	8,347
Posterior nasal growths.....	5,119
Bad mentality	1,210
Requiring medical attention.....	33,551
Examined	55,332

I have often been asked what I hope

to accomplish by this new method of inspection and how I expect to do it.

The first portion of this query is answered by what I have already said; the second portion can be briefly answered by stating that I expect to put the child in proper condition for study and the ready absorption of knowledge.

After all has been said and done our efforts tend to one point: that is, the higher education of the child. Given a community of educated people, are not the chances of obtaining that which is most desirable in life much more likely than in an uneducated one? Consider in our summer corps work how we are refreshed when we meet an intelligent woman, who appreciates just what we desire her to do. In this particular instance I want to state that in my opinion, the successful remedy against all disease, particularly summer diarrhoea, is education. I believe firmly that given a hundred selected mothers, sensible and intelligent, and given a child or two to each one of these mothers, that as regards summer diarrhoea I should be able to have a mortality of 0. This is no idle dream. Our experience corroborates this surmise. In private practice we find regularly a sensible mother bringing up her children through all kinds of bad conditions, heat, crowded tenements, doubtful milk, noise, etc. with a mortality of 0; whereas, other mothers with much better surroundings, have a regular mortality of .75 or thereabouts; in fact, that any of their children live is more of an accident than good management.

Nutrition, the first point of inquiry in our examination, is indicative of all the other functions of the body. With good healthy nutrition, we expect good, healthy organs throughout the body and conversely with poor nutrition we expect some condition which interferes with some vital bodily function; so in poor nutrition we find associated any one or combination of diseases of the nervous system, heart, lungs, locomotive apparatus, body fluids, eyes, ears, nose, throat, mentality and vicious hygiene.

The Nutrition of the Child.

When poor nutrition is associated with any of the other conditions noted, this associated condition is the one usually to receive attention. Taking them up, *seriatim*:

Enlarged cervical glands, anterior, may be acute and at certain times of the year mean nothing special. As a rule, however, they are sub-acute or chronic and are usually associated with disease or defect of nose, throat, ears, and gastro-intestinal tract; curing a blocked nose or hypertrophied tonsils or ear disease, or gastro-intestinal disorders, results in a cure of these glands. Their presence in the absence of any appreciable local trouble should be considered as a sign of weakened bodily resistance to the onslaught of tuberculosis. Maybe these are the natures that so readily contract other general systemic diseases. If it is worth while investigating, it is worth while noting the condition and it is worth while doing what we can to rid the system of these glandular growths by stimulating circulation and increasing the nerve supply of these parts and thus help these over-charged filters of the body to relieve themselves.

Chorea is dependent upon many causes:—habit, poor nutrition, rheumatism, and others. Nutrition is the cause that interests us; habit, secondarily. A poorly nourished child, forced day by day to strenuous effort to keep up with studies, very soon loses proper control of co-ordination, resulting in these involuntary clonic contractions; one child in a class-room is often enough to start the condition in other children.

Cardiac disease is due to prolonged exertion, rheumatism, toxic conditions. These cases should be recognized and treated with much consideration. They certainly are not children who should be crowded with school studies. If allowed to plod along these children can absorb enough practical knowledge that may enable them to work for their livelihood with their brains rather than their hands. In the athletic teams organized in classes of the school some serious accidents have occurred, due to the fact that cardiac disease cases were allowed to participate.

Pulmonary disease: Even at this early date much good has been accom-

plished by finding cases with chronic cough at school and visits to the homes reveal the presence of tuberculosis which, up to date, is unreported. Real cases of tuberculosis have been found in school, and, whereas, in the past, the department has taken no action in excluding these cases from class attendance unless a complaint is received, I hope in the near future that these cases will be excluded. They will never require much education if the present mode of existence is persisted in, as the expectancy of their life is very limited; whereas, if they are now compelled by the city to be segregated in some institution under the supervision of the city, and there receive practical education and sanatorium treatment of their disease, it will prevent possibility of contagion to other school children and their hygienic education will be of great help to the general community.

Skin disease: Mostly all of the skin diseases we meet will clear up during the process of improving the general nutrition of the child. Parasitic diseases must be treated locally of course. The old pediculosis question will certainly drop by the way during the care of the other conditions.

Orthopedic deformities should be considered in their relation to the causes provoking them—faulty standards of writing, faulty desks, etc. Real diseases of the locomotive apparatus should be treated specially. Gross deformities should be corrected. Proper calisthenics should be adopted under the supervision of qualified instructors. Slight defection can thus be rectified.

Defective vision: Inasmuch as it is now established that about thirty per cent. of children have defective vision, four per cent. defective hearing, we have at once thirty-three and one-third per cent. of the children physically unfit to pursue their studies with the same mechanical advantage that others do as regards the eye and ear cases. Our reports show plainly that fifty per cent. of these cases have procured glasses. As the work progresses and the same proportion continues, at the end of two or three years, can anybody gainsay that we have done some tangible good?

Defect as It
Influences
the Life
of the Child.

Is it any wonder that teachers and school children are nervous wrecks after years of class attendance when thirty-three and one-third per cent. of the children have not been able to see properly? Others in the class progress and advance easily; only by the greatest energy do the defective progress. After a time a limit is reached in their ability to keep up; the strain is too great; then diffidence possesses them; their pride dissatisfies them; and this restive dissatisfied feeling eventuates in truancy or desire to leave school and even the establishment of bad habits. How many bad habits exist in the leaders of any class? I dare say, not any. But the poor defective who cannot look at a book ten minutes in succession without headache, or nervous flushing going up and down the spine,—is it any wonder that he relaxes? To think that these conditions have existed for so long a time without a remedy being applied is, to say the least, not complimentary to the authorities; while it is doubtful if they have improved (?) their curriculum, they have succeeded in adding more to an already over-taxed class of pupils resulting in earlier dissatisfaction with studies, earlier leaving of school, and in the interim, plenty of truancy. Now truancy is the first stigma of criminality or mental depravity. Association of these truants results in the origin of social evils. Anything that is free, and wild, and lawless is readily appropriated by this class, as badness seems to be absorbed spontaneously, so that shortly social calamities obtain, prisons are filled, insane asylums crowded, sanitariums surcharged.

Supposing the condition is not quite as bad,—that it is simply a question of a child of proper environment who finds that she cannot equal her own desires in keeping up with the class in studies. She leaves school, enters a factory or store. Anybody who knows anything about the conditions existing in these places of employment realizes that they would not allow the members of their own family to enter them for the purpose of improving their rectitude or intellectuality. Those who are defective are as irrespon-

sible in these places as in others. We all understand that just as noble people work in these places as in any other, but these persons are not defectives in any respect. It is as hard, in my opinion, for a truly healthy body to do or think wrong as it is difficult for a defective body to do or think right. In mechanics, an apparatus that is perfect has to go smoothly and right; if imperfect it never gets nearer to the right path than to cross it in its crazy gyration. "Man is responsible for the good he does,—for the evil, the pathological deviations of his organism." (Mafucci.)

**The Purpose
Ahead.**

What is the inference from all this? It is this: Make the children more perfect from the time they enter school by polishing off from their throats and noses these excrescences that interfere with perfection. Harness their eyes and ears so that the concept in the brain may be complete. Segregate all organically diseased children and do not force studies. Allow a long period for each essential study, for with this class it takes some little time to understand an idea, but once it has been grasped it remains.

The following is the physical record of a total of 515 mentality cases investigated:

	No. of Cases.
Bad nutrition	113
Anterior glands	132
Posterior glands	23
Chorea	13
Cardiac disease	20
Pulmonary disease	0
Skin disease	11
Deformity of spine, chest, and extremities	28
Defective vision	229
Defective hearing	71
Defective nasal breathing	163
Defective teeth	249
Defective palate	18
Hypertrophied tonsils	99
Posterior nasal growths	174
	1,343

Total pulmonary cases re-examined.... 96
Number having family history of tuberculosis

13

or 15 per cent.

So many of our children have not the means to procure glasses or treatment

which is absolutely necessary for their improvement. If the city will give our children eye glasses and adequate means of treatment, as they give books, etc., I believe the children will be able to get for themselves the other necessities for mental and physical improvement. There need be no fear of pauperization if we begin early enough. All children will be right, and being right, they cannot be drawn from their true course, and inasmuch as you cannot even now pauperize all the needy of this metropolis, I hope in the next generation, it may truly be said that there are no needy to be pauperized.

While all the good that we would wish for may not be realized in the present generation of school children, for the

reason that they too are powerless to change their environment, the labor bestowed upon them now will so dissatisfy them with their present conditions and surroundings that they will demand and they must have (for no power can gain-say public indignation and dissatisfaction), better homes for the bringing up of their children and the latent pride that is in their breasts will become active and exhibit itself in the better hygienic care of their children.

Then as far as bodily cleanliness and diseases are concerned, there will be no lower classes. Education will have made us equal and the purpose of the medical inspection of schools as established by the department of health in New York city, will have been realized.

School Nurses in England

Honnor Morten

Sussex, England

Some twelve years ago the managers of a school in a very poor district of London asked a district nurse, Miss Amy Hughes, to visit the school once a week and do what she could to relieve the small ills of the children. Her work was found to be very beneficial, and was brought to the notice of one of the members of the London School board, who was herself a nurse and could therefore appreciate what was being done.¹

Obviously what was beneficial in one such school would be beneficial in another, but the board was not inclined to act in the matter, for it dreaded interfering with the scholars, parents and teachers, and stirring up discord.

So in 1898 a voluntary "London School Nurses' Society" was founded, having for its chairman the vice-chairman of the school board, the present Lord Stanley of Alderley. The following is from the first circular issued by this society:

The London School Nurses' Society has been formed with the object of supplying visiting nursing to elementary schools in poor districts. Already three nurses visit some of the poorest schools, and attend to the small ills of the scholars—such as sore heels and inflamed eyes. Excellent results

follow their ministrations; each is able to visit four schools in one day and see about one hundred children, who are sent to her, one by one, by the teachers. It is hoped that the work of the London School Nurses' Society may be done wherever possible by a queen's nurse, and so avoid the multiplying of agencies. The jubilee institute has approved of school nurses in principle. Probably it will be difficult to impress on the public the importance of the work to be done, or the necessity for these nurses; but it must be remembered that the sore heel soon becomes poisoned if left to London dirt, and that the inflamed eyes often lose all power of seeing simply through neglect. There is no more sure way of securing the health of the people than to arrest small ills at the beginning; a nurse can see at a glance whether a child should be sent to a doctor; she can impress cleanliness; she can follow up bad cases to their homes; she can recognize the early symptoms of fevers and do much to stop the spread of those infectious diseases which so often devastate our schools. It is found that cases of bad eyes and dirty heads are practically stamped out of a school by six months regular visiting; consequently each nurse is able to enlarge the scope of her work as time goes on.

Great care was taken at the outset to choose nurses who are not only efficient, but also tactful and sympathetic; and none of the difficulties with angry parents ever arose—though in some cases the nurses had to cut the children's hair, which is a technical assault according to

¹ [This was Miss Morten, the writer of the article—Ed.]



London school nurse at work.

our law. The funds to pay the nurses and provide dressings were raised by voluntary subscription, and as soon as finances permitted, extra nurses were added to the staff. There was no great effort made to raise money, however, for it was felt that the work ought to be municipal, and that by means of private gifts it was only necessary to prove the possibility and necessity of school nurses. Liverpool, Birmingham, and other big towns followed the example of London, and there was a constant demand for specimen forms and reports as used by the London society. Everywhere the same story was told of the schools—that they were centers of contagion, especially for such evils as pediculi and ringworm, and, a specially virulent form of ringworm having broken out in the London schools in 1900, the school board cautiously appointed *one* nurse at a salary of £70 a year to inspect the children's heads. There were then over half a million of children attending these schools!

In the same year the secretary of the London society was able to visit New York and see the work of medical inspection being founded there, and to take back to England ambitious plans for the future. So far the medical officers of the London School Board had been inert on these subjects, but now Dr. Kerr, a vigorous man from Bradford (in which advanced town he had been medical inspector of schools) was appointed medical officer to the London School Board and given one full-time assistant, and several half-time assistants. Attention was devoted wholly to the children's eyesight at first, and a state of things was disclosed which showed a terrible need of more medical care and inspection of the elementary school children. About ten per cent. of the children were shown to have defective vision. At the same time the six nurses reported that sometimes as many as ninety per cent. of the girls in one school were found to have verminous heads.

Under the London County Council in

1904 the work of the London School Board was taken over by the London County Council. Sir Shirley Murphy, the medical officer of the London County Council, had always had strong views about the schools as centers of infection, and when he and Dr. Kerr joined hands things began to move. The subjects especially taken up were:

School infections,—diphtheria, measles, scarlet fever, etc.;

Physical conditions of scholars,—measurements, physique, hearing, etc.;

Special schools,—examination of mentally defective and blind children;

School conditions,—ventilation, heating, lighting, etc.

The London School Nurses' Society now thought it time to end the experiment they had carried on for five years; they applied to the county council to take over their nurses and their work and to do it all from municipal funds. There was no lack of evidence of the value of the nurses' services, and the council, taking over the work as part of the medical officers' department, immediately appointed six more nurses, raising the staff to twelve. Other towns, Brighton and Widnes, for instance, managed to get nurses appointed as municipal officers to visit the schools, but still the work is largely done by voluntary agencies. There is always a great danger about red tape, and it is to be regretted that when the London nurses became the officers of the county council, they were withdrawn from doing the actual dressings, etc., and had to confine themselves entirely to reporting, excluding, and giving cards of instruction. There is no teaching like practice and example, and when a nurse actually combed and cleansed a dirty head, or washed and dressed a broken chilblain, she taught hygiene in the only way that it can be thoroughly taught. The poor children of our schools are being "told" things all day long; the nurse was the one person who *showed* them, and because she was not regarded as a teacher, was the best instructor in the most important and most neglected branch of education.

Here is a summary of the work done by the first twelve L. C. C. nurses; (it refers only to verminous children, as during these months only these cases were attended to.)

August 29 to November 30, 1904, (12 nurses).

Number of departments cleansed—79.

Number of children examined—27,781.

Number clean, 20,088.

White cards—4,922.

Red cards—1,694.

Proposed for exclusion—410.

Excluded for prosecution—133.

Brought before magistrate and fined—5.

The Physical Needs of School Children.

The white card gives directions for cleansing the heads; the red card threatens prosecution,—the continued presence of vermin being evidence of neglect under our law, sufficient to secure conviction of cruelty to the child. In 1903 a royal commission had been appointed to inquire into physical training in Scottish schools, and they disclosed a truly terrible state of destitution and suffering among the child-scholars. One of the chief points in their report was as follows:

The defects to which we have alluded in connection with the medical data now available show a very serious defect in our school organization to which we desire to call special attention. This consists in the absence of any general or adequate system of medical inspection. Such a system is urgently demanded, mainly for remedial objects, but also in order to make available information of the highest value both for ascertaining the facts of national physique and the means that may be adopted for its improvement and for retarding such degeneration as may be in progress.

There was a terrible outcry about "physical degeneration" in England for a few years, but the question of medical inspection received little attention until in 1905. Lord Londonderry appointed a small committee to inquire into medical inspection and feeding of children in schools.

The report was issued last November, and contains some useful information, but unfortunately the committee took no evidence from other countries, and was not important enough to make its opinions operative. They found that medical officers for educational purposes had been appointed by six counties, thirty-five county boroughs, and thirteen urban districts, but the duties of these officers vary enormously, and nowhere is there

The first notification to parents is on a white card, and the final notification on a red card. The average fine inflicted has been 6s. and costs.

the systematic daily inspection that is carried on in New York. At Reading, for instance, the medical officer visits each school about three times a year; in East-bourn once a month; in Tottenham once a week; it is remarked that the cost is very small. West Sussex has appointed an "inspector of physical welfare," who seems to be neither a doctor nor a nurse, but a teacher of drill and exercises. Her work is too recent to judge of results. In June, 1905, the Queen Victoria's Jubilee Institute of Nurses issued some suggestions on school nursing, pointing out that the training and knowledge of localities of its district nurses renders them especially suitable for such work, economizing in time and expense and avoiding the monotony of school work exclusively.

It is not likely that London will ever employ outside nurses again, but in course of time it will probably be seen that the true nurse must be a worker and not a mere inspector. In other towns the engaging of Queen's nurses to attend the schools is proceeding apace, and is eminently satisfactory. The first of this month 20 additional nurses were to be appointed in the London County Council schools. They will proceed to take up further investigations under the ever-growing medical staff. They will be paid £80 a year each, and allowed £15 for traveling expenses.

This shows that the work is now taking hold in England, and that our duty toward the child as regards its physical as well as its mental development is at last recognized.

Nurses in the Public Schools of New York City

Lina L. Rogers, R. N., Supervising Nurse

In 1902 the system of medical school inspection carried on by the New York Department of Health was extended by establishing a corps of nurses. At Miss Wald's suggestion, a month's experiment was made by one nurse. This test proved so satisfactory that twelve nurses were appointed and following the report of their work, the Board of Health considered that its practical value as a supplement to medical inspection was fully demonstrated.

The early reports of medical inspection show that the objective point was *exclusion*, thus hoping to protect the children in school. The Department of Health while not prescribing treatment, gave an exclusion card stating the diagnosis. It was supposed that the necessary medical treatment would be secured by the parents.

But the Department of Education soon discovered serious difficulties resulting from this policy of exclusion. In many cases, the excluded children, not fully understanding the instructions, played on the street with their companions as they came out of school and lost or destroyed the cards. In other instances, the parents, often ignorant of the English language, did not understand the child's explanation and failed

to comprehend the Latin names on the cards. The result was, that the majority of such cases received no treatment, and sometimes were not considered serious by the parents, such as skin diseases, eye and scalp troubles. In many instances, the cards were never looked at, but remained in their sealed envelopes while the child played on the street. Under this system, the number excluded was 10,567 for the month of September, 1902. During the same month in 1903, with the nurses in the schools, only 1,101 were excluded. From these figures it can be estimated what a serious loss of school time was suffered by the very children who could least afford to lose their schooling, as they belong, almost all, to that class of wage earners who are legally allowed to work at the age of fourteen.

The Department of Health fully realized this aspect of the case and sympathizing with the Department of Education in its attitude toward the problem of the children's school life, concluded that by utilizing the practical services of the nurse, under a thorough system, the old policy of exclusion might be safely reversed in a large majority of cases and that the number of children excluded be reduced very materially.



School nurse cleansing eyes—One of the staff of the New York (Dept. of Health.)

With this purpose in view, keeping in mind not only the health, but the education of the child, the former policy of ordering no treatment was also modified, and the nurse was instructed by the orders of the Department of Health to give specified local treatment in all cases, which with care and daily supervision might safely remain in school. Thus to illustrate, a case of ringworm which was formerly sent out of school is now retained, being considered innocuous under the care prescribed by the department. At the request of the Board of Health, the Board of Estimate and Apportionment appropriated \$30,000 for 1903, to extend the nursing service and place it on a more definite basis. This provided a staff of twenty-seven nurses at a salary of \$900 per year. The nurses provide their own board, lodging and current expenses.

Eighty-seven schools were added to the service, making a total of 129 (125 public and four parochial schools) with

an attendance of 219,239 pupils. Schools were selected according to the number of exclusions under the old system.

Organization of the Work.

A nurse receives from the supervising nurse information as to the schools in which she is to perform her duties and the hours for visiting each school. On entering the school for the first time, she reports to the principal and obtains a place in which to work and learns the method for receiving the children designated by the medical inspectors. The doctor is interviewed and the names of the children are obtained from his cards. Cards are kept for each class, and while the nurse prepares the "dressing table" a monitor is sent for a limited number of children. Others are sent for, as these are treated, each child returning to classrooms as soon as cared for, thus preventing delay and confusion.

The course of treatment used in schools is outlined by the Department of

Health. The supervising nurse has entire charge of the school nurses, and is responsible for the efficiency and character of the work performed by each nurse, in all boroughs of the city. It is her duty to make arrangements for beginning work in the schools and to see that the necessary supplies are provided by the Department of Education. She also regulates the proper amount of work for each nurse making whatever changes and transfers are necessary, and inspects the work of each.¹

The supervising nurse receives the weekly written report of each nurse² which she examines and corrects, before making a general summary which is forwarded to the chief inspector. The nurses report to her once a week in person.³

**The Real
Preventive
Work Is in
the Home.**

A list of the names of children excluded by the medical inspectors is left with the clerk in each school. This keeps the school supplied with accurate records of children absent on account of illness. Before leaving the school the nurse obtains a copy of this list and subsequently visits each child in his home. This part of the work of the school nurses is by far the most important in its direct results, and most far reaching in its indirect influence. The nurses found unopened cards behind clocks and on the mantel shelves; they detected unsanitary conditions which were propagating the very troubles the children were being excluded for; an entire family using the same towel and other linens, where the child was excluded from school with contagious eye trouble;—children not at school equally suffering with pediculosis capitis, the mothers not realizing that it was useless to keep the school child clean if all the others in the family were neglected;—cases where the child sent

home from school with severe forms of scabies was helping to finish and carry bundles of sweat-shop clothing;—bad conditions of drains and sewers;—filthy yards, where delicate children played. Moreover, the nurses discovered many cases of contagious illness. One such instance was that where a nurse on entering a room without a window found what seemed to be a bundle of rags on a cot. Upon investigation, it proved to be a man in the last stages of tuberculosis. With such conditions in the homes it is obvious to all, that the work done in school only, must fail to have any real preventive character.

The care given to the children in the schools is the ameliorative, that given in the homes the preventive part of the whole.

The nurse's first duty is to explain why the child has been sent home and what is to be done. She instructs the mother and where necessary gives practical demonstrations. She impresses on parents the importance of having medical advice and suggests calling the family physician. If too poor to pay a physician, the proper dispensary is indicated. Her opportunities for advising the family are manifold, as are also those of reporting to the proper authorities unsanitary conditions and non-observances of the law. When the mother is overburdened with work or where there are smaller children who cannot be left alone, the nurses often have to take the children to the dispensary to insure the treatment being given. As soon as evidence of treatment can be shown, the child is allowed to return to school except in extreme cases. The latter are kept on a separate list, and visited from time to time until able to return.

³ Supplies requisitioned are as follows:

- | | |
|--------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1 Screen. | Boric acid powder. |
| 1 Cabinet. | Tr. Green soap. |
| 2 Chairs (1 high). | Collodion. |
| 1 Table. | Vaseline. |
| 1 Scrap basket. | White precipitate ointment. |
| 12 Towels. | 1 Ointment jar (glass). |
| Absorbent cotton. | 2 Basins (white granite). |
| Absorbent gauze. | 1 Glass jar (1 gallon). |
| Bandages. | Bichloride Mercury tablets. |

These are ordered on regular requisitions by the principals of the schools and forwarded to the Department of Education, each school receiving only what is necessary for its own particular needs.

¹ To facilitate the smooth running of the medical inspection, there was adopted what is known as the "card index system," a detailed account of which is given in Dr. Darlington's paper on *Precautions used by the New York City Department of Health to prevent the spread of contagious disease in the Schools of the City*, in the *Medical News*, January 21, 1905.

² Applications for the position of school nurse are made to the supervising nurse, who interviews each applicant and obtains credentials which she investigates, and forwards result of investigation, with her recommendations, to the Board of Health.



A member of the staff of the Chicago Visiting Nurse Association at work at one of the Public Recreation Centers.

Routine Inspection.

In 1903 the nurses made 16,218 visits to homes to instruct the parents.

The experience of time shows that this careful detail work amply justifies itself by its results.

Pediculosis has almost entirely disappeared where nurses are in attendance at schools.

Some parents at the outset were suspicious and defiant until shown the intentions of the Department of Health. One mother, for instance, was indignant when she learned from her son that "his eyes had to be taken out and scraped." The nurse on entering this home was greeted with a tirade of abuse, but after holding her ground, succeeded in making the explanation with the result that the mother not only consented to have the boy operated upon, but invited the nurse to take tea.

In 1904, the work was extended and fifty-two schools were added. The staff

of nurses was increased to thirty-three. The general plan of the work remained the same.

In 1905, the staff of nurses was increased to fifty, and assigned to the different boroughs as follows:

	Nurses	Pub. Schools
Manhattan.....	31	128
Brooklyn	14	81
Brox	1	8
Richmond	2	17
Queens.....	2	8

Nurses are also assigned to twenty parochial schools and three industrial schools which are under separate management.

With the purpose of relieving the physicians in the schools of much routine duty, and giving them as much time as possible, for the physical examination, the nurses were given charge of the "routine inspection." This consists of a class to class examination which is done systematically and regularly. The children pass before the nurse, drawing down their eyelids as they pass, the con-

dition of the hands being noted at the same time; throat and hair are examined also. The names of those requiring treatment are written on the cards and cared for as their conditions indicate. These cards are left for the medical inspector who fills in the diagnosis when making his morning inspection next day.

**The
Summer
Corps.**

During July and August, when the schools are closed, the nurses are assigned to "summer corps" work. Each tenement house is visited and a history card is filled in and forwarded, for every child under one year of age. Instruction is given to the mothers on the preparation of food, care of skin and clothing and proper ventilation. Where a child is found requiring careful nursing, one of the staff is detailed to make daily visits until the child is cured. Milk and ice tickets are given for distribution and mothers are urged to go as often as possible to the piers or St. John's Guild boats when the babies are ill and where it is impossible to get fresh air at home.

Following is a summary of the work done by the nurses during the year 1905:

Pediculosis	16,384
Trachoma (sent to dispensary)	80,050
Eye diseases	188,805
Scabies	2,805
Ringworm	21,111
Impetigo	13,491
Favus	2,645
Miscellaneous	50,669

No. children examined	1,351,083
Tenements visited	40,070
Schools visited	25,943
Miscellaneous visits	1,344

**Contagious
Service.**

A staff of three nurses originally established by the Department of Health, to visit scarlet fever, measles and diphtheria in the homes, has also been made a part of the general nursing staff to unify the work.¹ These nurses report daily except Sunday at the Willard Parker Hospital Annex, receive their lists of calls, which are sent by postal from the different inspectors, and prepare their bags for daily rounds. This bag contains an aseptic gown, cap, gauze, cotton, thermometer, scissors, sol. carbolic acid, bichloride tablets, boric

acid powder, alcohol and Tr. green soap. Other things are added as needs arise. Each nurse changes her dress for one of a washable material and is ready to begin "rounds."

Arriving at the home of her first patient (those most seriously ill being visited first) she removes her hat and wrap, hangs them in the least infected spot, puts on gown and cap and prepares a solution of bichloride of mercury for her hands. Her first duty will be to learn what treatment has been ordered by the physician in charge of the cases, and to carry out the orders as expeditiously as possible.

The usual mode of treatment where no orders are left, is to give a bath, cleanse the mouth and make the bed clean and comfortable.

A written record of everything done for the patient is left for the physician. All clothing is immersed at once in a disinfecting solution. The necessity for this, as well as isolating separate dishes, is impressed on the family. Having left the patient as clean and comfortable as conditions will permit, the nurse removes her own protective clothes, replaces them in the bag, and having disinfected her hands, goes on to the next case.

When all cases for the day have been visited, the nurse returns to the office, puts her nursing outfit in a basket provided for the purpose, and sends it to the disinfecting station for sterilization. This is done each day.

The district nurse's work consists principally in giving baths for reduction of temperature, for general cleanliness and to assist desquamation. Inunctions of various kinds are given, enemata, irrigations and spraying of different affected parts. Mothers are instructed in the proper preparation and administration of food and medicines. Suggestions are made regarding ventilation, isolation, etc., and how clothes and dishes are to be disinfected. Hangings and old clothes are removed from the walls, children are taken from feather beds in dark rooms and put where as much light and air as possible may be had. Many things which are sources of contagion are removed and the most hygienic conditions the homes will allow, are established.

¹[Tuberculosis nurses not included in this staff.]



"FATHER'S IN PITTSBURG,"

A Slovak woman of Slatina, near Zrolen, who wanted to have a picture of herself and the children to send to her husband in America.



A Slovak Farmer.

Slav Emigration at Its Source

Emily Greene Balch

III.—Slovak Emigration⁽¹⁾

This is the fourth of a series of articles giving some of the results of Miss Balch's studies in Austria-Hungary. The first installment, an introductory survey, appeared in *Charities and The Commons* for January 6, 1906, the second, on Bohemian Emigration, February 3, the third, on Slovak Emigration (first part), March 3.

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Part Second

If a quiet pond is a common feature of a South Bohemian village, characteristic of a Slovak village is a brook running through its midst. It is peopled by geese—now plump and sleek, now newly plucked and dismal,—by playing children and by women knee-deep in the cold water pounding their linen on little wood-

en stands. Willows and a foot bridge and a wagoner watering his horse before he drives through the shallow ford, complete the picture.

If it is a town and not a village, there

¹[In my last article I estimated the Slovaks in the United States at 100,000. I find that there are substantial reasons for an estimate of six or seven times as many.]

may be a church of some architectural pretensions and a good deal else of historical interest—the remains of the old wall that kept out the Turks in their day, with a stone cannon ball embedded in its side, the former gallows hill, an old linden where once a heathen god may have been worshipped (for the linden is the sacred tree of the Slavs), shading a Christian saint.

On almost every crag, in some dis-

by an adder and jumped in a frenzy over the cliff; sometimes a mixture of reality and fable as at Trensčén, where a well hewn nearly six hundred feet into the solid rock by Turkish prisoners, speaks for so much of the truth of the story which tells how the captive daughter of a pasha was held against a ransom of a water supply for the castle, which stands high on the rocks above the lovely river Waag. A story like Jokai's *Geleibt bis*



What a Slavish girl abandons for the glories of an American hat.

tricts, stands a ruined castle, all that the most romantic could desire in picturesqueness and in story. Sometimes the legend seems to be actually historical, like the terrible one of Csejte, where the Countess Báthory is said to have had three hundred young girls murdered in order to restore her beauty by bathing in their blood. She died in prison in 1610. Sometimes it seems to be purely a myth, as at Beczno, where a faithless lord is supposed to have been stung in the ear

by an adder and jumped in a frenzy over the cliff; sometimes a mixture of reality and fable as at Trensčén, where a well hewn nearly six hundred feet into the solid rock by Turkish prisoners, speaks for so much of the truth of the story which tells how the captive daughter of a pasha was held against a ransom of a water supply for the castle, which stands high on the rocks above the lovely river Waag. A story like Jokai's *Geleibt bis*

zum Schaffot suggests how war used to rage through all this peaceful country and how it centered about the siege of these strongholds. Just outside some of the towns is a gipsy settlement, all dirt, naked children and beggary. One man is squatting over a fire forging a chain, for they are clever iron workers. In another grass-roofed hovel, where the air is dense with smoke, a violin hangs on the wall. The boy who owns it may some day be earning gold

and glory as a member of one of the gipsy bands which afford the Magyar such extravagant delight, but a gipsy he will remain in every fibre.

It is a curious fate of words that these gipsies, coming to France from Bohemia, and so known there as Bohemians, should have given that name its gipsy character, so perfectly alien to the con-



Home from church. A Zips county type.

servative and retiring, home life of the real Bohemian.

The return from such a gipsy settlement to the Slovak town or village is a return to another world. Here are long, low houses, neat and clean, ranged end to end in an even row, flush with the street, the eaves of the gable roof just above the door.

In the country the roofs are apt to be of hand-made shingles. Thatch means

plenty of grain for straw, and not much grain grows here. The houses are generally either of brick, frequently merely sun dried, or of wood, often in the shape of logs or great squared beams, whose cross laid ends show clearly at the corners. But whatever the material, it is generally covered with plaster or raw clay and either whitewashed or painted some pale shade of buff, blue, or green. The houses are generally built perfectly plain, though some have pretty wood work at the gable ends, or designs painted on the walls or about the windows—a kind of work which is a specialty of the women who are said to do it freehand.

Of course, conditions vary with localities and individual housewives, but my general impression is one of tidy and homelike interiors. Even an earthen floor may be made to suggest cleanliness.

I remember especially one call at a house where the daughter had recently gone to America to get work. The mother who welcomed us led us through the entry, where a girl was doing washing, into the living room and offered us the traditional "bread and salt"—that is, actually, a loaf of rye bread and a knife, that one may serve oneself unstinted. We honored the pretty old custom and I wished that I had cut off a bigger piece, it tasted so good.

The room was low, but scrupulously nice. On the wall hung gay flowered crockery, products of an old home art which collectors highly prize. There were double windows, opening casement fashion, and in the space between, pots of wall flowers. On the bed were piles of square feather pillows, the pride and visible assets of the thrifty housewife. Each has a bright undercover (among rich city people this would be of satin, yellow, pink, blue or what not), over which is drawn a case of handspun linen, with ends of lace insertion, also hand-made, through which the color peeps prettily. It takes some sixteen geese to supply one feather bed. There is a sewing machine and a table on which lies a copy of a Sokol magazine (that is the organ of one of the universal patriotic athletic associations). On the wall are pictures of sacred subjects. These

A Slovak Home.



The Wager: This custom of ratifying a bet on taking hands and letting a witness strike them also occurs in England.

often, even in much poorer homes, make a sort of frieze about the wall. Often, too, there hangs over the table a curious little ornament made of a blown eggshell, with tail and wings of pleated paper. This represents a dove and symbolizes the Holy Ghost.

**Of Spinning
Bees and
of Dress.**

In many houses there was a loom, but I think we never saw a spinning wheel for the spinning season was over and it is only in winter that the famous spinning bees take place, when young and old gather in separate groups to sing, tell legends and, in the case of the girls, receive their lovers who drop in toward the end of the evening.

Clothes are kept for the most part in chests, sometimes painted with designs of flowers on a red, blue or green background. The bride comes to her husband with a chest well replenished.

It is difficult to describe the dress, it

varies so from place to place. Every little village has its own peculiarities, which make its people distinguishable to the initiated and doubtless help to give a strong sense of local solidarity. Within the group there is the most scrupulous adherence to custom. The kerchief knotted, apparently carelessly under the chin, is in reality arranged in certain folds and at a certain angle, precisely prescribed by local usage and different from that of the next settlement.

The colors are generally brilliant and harmonious, though in some districts a wonderful affectiveness is gained by heavy embroidery of black on white, with no color. In many places bright patterned stuffs, usually in large flowered designs, are attractively used for skirt, bodice or apron, and the latter is generally the show piece in a holiday costume. I was interested to note the same curious and beautiful combinations of color, most unlike those that we are

accustomed to choose, which had struck me years ago on a visit to the settlement of Slavs (Vends), which survives in the Spreewald, near Dresden.

The great beauty of these costumes is the embroidery which is indeed, with song, the chief art of the Slovak. The women do this work mainly in winter, when their fingers are sufficiently soft again after the field work. They are said to often embroider freehand, without any previous drawing, and they work so neatly that the underside is almost as perfect as the upper. The variety of stitches is great and embroidery is combined with pillow lace and drawn work. The feeling for style is admirable. The designs are conventional and the motives generally from plant life, roses, poppy heads, corn flowers, and so forth, though the heart and also the stalk often are made use of. Special units of design often have special names, like the quilting patterns of our grandmothers. Often these seem to be quite fanciful—the “lover’s eye” or the “little window” may point to no discernible resemblance.

Girls and married women are generally distinguishable, often by the long braids of the former, and the caps (generally, however, hidden under the universal kerchief), of the latter. Otherwise they are dressed alike from childhood to old age and if the skirts of the district are full and short, they are short for the grandmother and if long, long for the toddler of three or four.

In many places the women wear tall leather boots like a man’s. At first they seem clumsy and unfeminine, but an experience of what mud can be here converts one to their good sense and as they give a new impression when one has an opportunity to see the quick, graceful dances in tall boots with trim ankles and narrow heels. Sometimes instead of boots low moccasin-like shoes called *Kripce* are worn, bound with leather thongs about the ankle. These, too, are worn by both sexes.

One of the prettiest forms of dress is a low square-cut bodice, over a chemise of white linen with full short sleeves and a broad band of embroidery—say in orange and canary-yellow silks—across the sleeve just below the shoulder.

The Garb of Men.

The men, especially the young fellows, are often great dandies. Sometimes they wear jackets and trousers of cadet-blue cloth, fitting like a glove and braided in black in looping designs. Sometimes they are mainly in white linen, with wide fringed trousers and a narrow, dark-blue apron. It is astonishing the way that both men and women dig and delve in white linen and still look clean.

Especially archaic are the wide-brimmed black felt hats, looking almost like the old-fashioned cocked hat, worn in some districts, and the enormous leather belts—they look a good foot and a half wide, studded with brass trimmings, which serve as a pouch for all the necessities, especially tobacco.

A very important article of dress for both men and women is the sheep skin, made with the wool inside and the leather out. Dyed, embroidered, trimmed with appliqué leather or brass work, with borders of wool of a contrasting color, they may be made very ornamental. Sometimes they take the form of a close-fitting, sleeveless jacket, very pretty and very comfortable, sometimes of a long sleeved coat. Sometimes this coat is made not of sheepskin, but of the heavy home-made felt called “humia.” This may be dark brown or blue, but oftener white and is also used instead of leather for tall boots. These are kept white and clean by washing.

It interested me very much to note how certain characteristic articles of dress—such as the moccasin-like shoe, the long coat, the belt, the kerchief or shawl—appear here and there among all the different Slav nationalities that I have had an opportunity to observe, running through a whole gamut of modifications.

Some Folk Characteristics.

The Slovaks seem to me comely and sweet faced, rather than beautiful, though there are of course exceptions. Among the elders one sees the best sort of beauty in the strongly marked lines of character and experience—here “the old, plain men have rosy faces and the young fair maidens quiet eyes.” In some places the round, full face with short nose and

high cheek bones is replaced by a strongly marked type, with straight, long, sharpset nose and long lantern jaw. The eyes are often of a special blue gray, which I have noticed among Slavs whenever I have seen them, even amid the prevailing brunettes of the Bosnians. The hair is frequently quite light among children, turning to a real brown among adults.

Physically they are often splendid creatures, powerful without being heavy, and full of the grace that goes with health and varied activity and the bearing of burdens. Nothing seems too heavy for the women to carry. A child of two or three will be slung comfortably on the back in a linen cloth and apparently regarded as scarcely an addition to the other burdens. The women marry young, bear a child a year—"always either bearing or nursing"—and age fast. In Pennsylvania I heard the other day of a Slav woman, whose child was born about midnight, who afterward got up and prepared an early breakfast and at nine A. M. was out barefoot in the snow, hanging up a wash done since the meal.

Both men and women seem impervious to heat and cold. In summer they will complacently wear their sheep skins or wool coat, which represent full dress under a torrid sun; in winter the men, I am told, labor in the woods in their shirts without any sort of vest or jacket. They are very hard workers. In the time when the field operations are most pressing there are often weeks when a man sleeps only four or five hours and snatches his food as he can. I was told the story of a peasant who was hired to thresh for a man whose crop was not so large but that he might have done his own work. The comment of the thresher was "Er muss doch ein Schwein sein der nur acht Stunden arbeiten will."

All these good qualities are handicapped by various unfortunate circumstances acting on the weaker sides of the Slovaks, their passiveness and lack of initiative and their proneness to drink.

Apart from the natural infertility of

the soil, intensified as this is by conditions of landholding and tillage, the great curses of the country seem to be three: intemperance, financial exploitation (these two very closely related), and political conditions.

As to intemperance, all the powers that be seem to favor rather than restrain drinking. The large land owner, the local great personage, is interested in marketing the products of his distillery. The Jew who leases the right of sale and keeps the drinking shop, where the rank potato brandy of the country side is sold is often the only intelligent man in the little community, the only one who can help in a money difficulty, translate a legal document (always in Magyar), or assist with advice in an emergency. He often controls practically all the retail trade, and is the only man who can supply goods or buy produce. For all these reasons it is essential to keep on his good side.

The government also, I am told, is opposed to temperance agitation as likely to lower revenues, and some years ago put a stop to a series of mission services that the Redemptorist fathers were proposing to hold throughout the Slovak counties in the interest of temperance. The priest is not likely to be a total abstainer and too often has neither the desire nor the courage to take a decided stand, though there are honorable exceptions. Public opinion, while not so low as in eighteenth century England, or in New England in colonial times, is much below what it is now in the more advanced countries. One of the most frequent comments of returned emigrants is in the first place that in America, beer is cheap and abundant, and in the second place that men are arrested there for being drunk. "And rich men as well as poor ones; that could not happen here."

As to the Jews, their local reputation seems to vary with the credit situation. Where there have been established credit institutions, lending money at five and a half or six per cent. instead of at the Jewish rate of eight or twelve or more, the Jews are often respected and not disliked, but in too many places, where the simple, drink-loving peasant is

wholly at their mercy, they are charged with getting them into debt, often through tavern bills. There is especial complaint of the way they contrive to get control of the woods, which are the only valuable asset of the region, and are being recklessly cut down by speculators. On these steep hillsides with a chalky character this means destruction of the soil, floods and general disaster. Where there has been a movement to America, the peasants, educated by experience, are said to know how to keep out of the hands of designing individuals.

One of the promising things I noted is a thriving co-operative movement, in which the priests seem to lead. The co-operative store, served by the members, the co-operative dairy and sometimes the co-operative hall for dancing, amateur theatricals and entertainments, furnish the best possible sort of training in business and in organization, apart from more direct benefits.

**A Country at
Political
Cross-Purposes.**

The dark cloud resting over everything, however, is the political dissatisfaction. The "Magyar idea of the state" is that there must be complete unity, or rather uniformity, including uniformity of language. This is in a country where they are only some fifty-one per cent of the population and where through whole countrysides their language is absolutely unknown to the mass of the population.

Formerly the language of parliament and state business generally was Latin. Then came the unhappy decision to give a forced monopoly in pulpit, school, courts of justice, and so far as possible in daily life, to the Hungarian language (Magyar). This is a very difficult non-Aryan language of the agglutinative type, nearest akin to Finnic or Turkish. The Slovaks, who like most Slavs are extremely tenacious, object to this policy on practical as well as on sentimental grounds. Their own tongue practically opens to them the whole Slav world, including Russia (and we have seen what wanderers they are); German, too, which a large proportion of them can speak, is an important medium of business and culture, "But what," they say, "does Magyar

open to our children?" They come out of school, in most cases, not really masters of it and their own tongue they have not been allowed to learn to read or write. This is a cause of an artificial degree of illiteracy among our people. In America they learn to read and come back reading the newspapers."¹

But in Hungary to take a Slovak newspaper, or if an educated man, to speak the Slovak tongue, is to brand oneself in Magyar eyes as a political traitor and to insure every possible obstacle in one's path. The upper schools ("gymnasiums"), formerly conducted in Slovak and founded and supported by private contributions have been sequestered; the Slovak literary association has been dissolved and its building seized. It is almost impossible for a company of Slovak shareholders to receive the necessary permission to carry on business.²

The natural consequence is that a Slovak who continues his education beyond the primary school, necessarily receives a purely Magyar training, and partly through assimilation, partly through prudential considerations, generally becomes a "Magyarone" and like most converts "plus royaliste que le roi." Thus the Slovaks lose their natural leaders by a constant drifting off of the ablest and most ambitious and this fosters the feeling that *Tót* (Magyar for Slovak), is synonymous for ignorance, dullness and poverty. All that is intelligent is assumed to be Magyar. This stupid contempt (for all contempt is stupid) and the desire to appropriate as Magyar all the specifically Slovak productions is most exasperating. In the beautiful ethnological museum at Budapest all the treasures of embroidery, costume and so forth appear to be Magyar. No other nationality is recognized. This

¹[Among our Slav immigrants the Slovaks rank second in education—next, but far below, the Bohemians. 1905, illiterate immigrants fourteen and over, Bohemians, 1.3%: Slovak, 23%. It is worth noticing, as bearing out the view that we get the pick of the Slovak population, that this is decidedly better than the proportion at home. The Slovak counties range for Gümür with 28% of the population illiterate to Ung with over 67. Twelve of the Slovak counties are above the general Hungarian average (50.60%), four are below it.]

²[A cellulose factory at Saint Martin in Turnez is a well known instance. After standing idle for a long time while the owners vainly endeavored to get government permission to begin work, it was sold to a Jewish company for less than it was worth and at once was licensed and put in operation.]

tendency is fostered by the fact that the Magyar language has only one word for the two ideas Magyar and Hungarian. Hungary is Magyar ország (that is Magyar land), and one might almost say that this whole wretched business reduces itself to a poor pun. "A Hungarian" (that is, an inhabitant of Hungary) "must of course speak Hungarian" (that is, Magyar). "Now let me see that you do it."

It should be stated that there is no antipathy or ill feeling among Slovaks and Magyars, except when political inflammation has set in. The peasants of both races are often profoundly unconscious of any reason for hating one another, regard one another as friends and inter-marry.

As regards those Magyars, who are concerned with public questions, we must sympathize with their difficult position and with their desire to strengthen and expand their political life. One therefore doubly honors the Magyar, who to his love of his own race unites the magnanimity to appreciate the claims of others, and the wisdom to recognize the folly of a policy which alienates and keeps back millions of their sturdiest citizens. Similarly double honor is due to those Jews who in spite of the bad traditions of a persecuted people and the sinister opportunities afforded by a helpless peasantry are honorable and just in their dealings; and a double honor to these Slovaks, who in spite of the danger of personal ruin and the daily experience of petty annoyances, which are less heroic but perhaps harder to endure, sacrifice all their prospects to loyalty to their own people and towards their country as a whole. Meeting such men is one of the greatest pleasures of travelling among the Slovaks.

While it is true, as has been said, that the main causes of emigration are economic, not political, the political conditions also play an important part. Aside from desire to avoid military service (which I hope to discuss later) and individual cases of persecution¹ a man per-

haps seldom leaves the country for political reasons, but he often remains permanently in America, chiefly because of the political situation. A more or less conscious sense of being ill at ease, of being held inferior, thwarted in efforts to progress, make Hungary unattractive to him.

Back from
America
the Slovak
Chafes.

The Slovak who goes to America, seeks his fellow countrymen there, and is quickly drawn into one of the powerful national mutual benefit organizations, where he generally gets an education in nationalistic feeling.

How far this is really Pan-Slav (that is Russo-phil), I do not know. The Magyars choose to consider it so and ever since 1848, when the Slovaks sided with the Russians whom Austria called in to suppress the Magyar movement for independence, this cry of Pan-Slavism is a trump card politically, and the Russian spy is on the brain.

My impression is that the Slovak who returns from America with awakened national self-consciousness, is generally quite unconcerned about distant political Utopias, but that he does take an interest in practical local issues, in education for his children in their mother tongue, and in elections to parliament, where the Slovaks, with over a tenth of the population, have one representative in 453.

The result is that the returned emigrant chafes. It is hard to exert oneself for twenty or even forty cents a day, after the "big money" earned in Pittsburgh steel works or Scranton coal mines. It is hard to be sufficiently submissive to the pettiest official of the town after an experience of American free-and-easiness. The man is looked on with disfavor, his sense of the superiority of American ways does not perhaps make him more popular and the visit to America which was intended to be temporary, leads finally to settlement there.

Often this is not the immediate result, many men go back and forth a number of times. It is amazing how easily this race, which is at once so migratory and so firmly rooted make the long journey. To see the old parents, to attend to a bit of legal business, to settle an inheritance or sell off a bit of land, they come and go.

¹[I am told of a protestant minister, a Slovak, forced to leave Hungary because he refused to preach in Magyar more than two Sundays out of three to a congregation which understood only Slovak.]

In 1905, of Bohemian immigrants, less than six in a hundred had been in the country previously, of the Slovaks nearly a quarter. Sometimes the wife is sent home to do what is necessary. One such, a simple peasant woman, came home on business, knew every detail of the return trip to New York down to the right street car in Vienna. One boastful gentleman is said to have written home "As far as

Dreössing" (near Vienna) "the journey goes well; after that it drags a little.

Since writing the above and just in time for mention here, I have received a copy of almost the first account in English of this interesting and little known nationality and situation. Thomas Capek's *The Slovaks of Hungary*, just published by the Knickerbocker Press. The book is brief, readable and full of matter.



Gable ends, Zoolen county.

The Settlements: Their Lost Opportunity

Florence Kelley

Secretary National Consumers' League

[This is the second of a series of articles, taking up some of the fundamental problems with which neighborhood work is identified. In the March 3 issue, Prof. Graham Taylor discussed "Whither the Settlement Movement Tends." Articles by Mrs. Humphrey Ward, Canon Barnett, Mr. Gavit, first editor of *The Commons*, and Mrs. Simkhovitch will be published in the near future. Mrs. Kelley has long been a resident of Hull House, Chicago and the Henry Street (The Nurses) Settlement, New York.]

For fifteen years the settlements have been established chiefly in congested districts of the cities. The exceptions are so few that they may be said to prove the rule. True, the Kentucky and North Carolina mountains have had little groups of long-time residents, and other Southern states are now developing small rural experiments of similar aims. But the idea of Mr. Barnett, first warden of Toynbee Hall and father of the settlement movement, has remained the basic idea in this country, as in England, and residents have lived among the crowded abodes of working people.

Crowding was the evil most conspicuous in New York, Chicago, Boston and Philadelphia in the regions in which the

earliest settlements were founded. The houses were too densely filled. The schools had too few seats, and too many children for each room. In New York, the very streets told the story. In 1889 Rivington street was an unpleasant place for walking because, even then, there were too many people for the sidewalks.

For some reason not clear to the writer, this was accepted as inevitable by residents and effort was directed to other things. No one seems to have asked "How many people can live healthily upon a square mile of land under the conditions of city life?" Everyone seems to have assumed overcrowding as permanent and to have set about dealing with its results. The writer confesses to fol-

lowing this line of action and of thoughtlessness.

In the neighborhood of Hull House, in 1893, there was a sad dearth of school buildings. After much labor a new school was secured. It was built upon a lot surrounded by three streets and an alley with no provision for a school-garden, a playground, an indoor gymnasium or a roof-garden. There was no thought of providing for more than the customary narrow classroom uses. Happy in the thought that a thousand children were freed from half-time attendance and given full-day school-room life, the writer turned her attention to another aspect of the same neighborhood congestion, not seeing that this congestion was, in itself, the evil to be dealt with.

The sweating system in Chicago was already highly developed in 1893 when the first factory law was enacted in Illinois. Men, women and children sewed in kitchens and bedrooms as they do today. Family life was destroyed then as now, wages were forced down below the living point, and disease was sent broadcast from the homes of the workers to the wearers of the garments, precisely as occurs at the present time. Instead of seeing that sweating follows crowding, the writer saw only the converse fact which is also true, that crowding accompanies sweating. She accordingly strove for legislation to limit sweating. A law was passed forbidding any person not a member of the family to work in a kitchen or bedroom making garments or cigars for sale. Far from driving the sweaters to hire lofts, or the manufacturers to build factories, this led the small employers to close the door between the kitchen and the workroom by means of boards easily removed in the absence of the inspectors, and everything continues as before, to this day. The same amount of effort spent in dealing directly with overcrowding itself could not possibly have proved so fruitless.

In those days there was a widely cherished hope that congestion might be dispelled by the introduction of electric traction. In 1894 this change did enable many desirable neighbors to move away to the outskirts of Chicago. But the incoming Italians, Greeks, Poles and ne-

groes crowded more closely than the departing Irish, German and Bohemian families had ever done, and rents are as high in 1906 as they were in 1894.

One experiment, and that an eminently successful one, was made in those early days, namely the starting of the Italian co-operative colony at Daphne, Alabama, by Signor Alessandro Mastro-Valerio. To this Hull House contributed both money and counsel. It is hard to tell why this line of action has not proved more permanently attractive.

The modern housing legislation of New York and Chicago is due directly to residents, past and present, of the settlements in those cities. It provides minimum requirements as to light and air. But the new houses built under it are larger than the old houses which they replace and the number of people per acre grows apace.

To obtain small parks and playgrounds has been a favorite activity of the settlements. In New York the establishment of Mulberry Bend, Hamilton Fish, Seward and Corlears Hook parks was followed by a veritable epidemic of building tall tenements facing them. The new houses utilize every inch of space allowed by the building and tenement laws and the streets surrounding the new parks are filled with people as densely as ever.

Transportation, housebuilding, the creation of small parks, the widening of streets, all taken together, have not reduced, or even checked the increasing congestion of the city wards. They have somewhat altered the appearance of the districts, but the consequences of congestion remain. The sweating system spreads in New York and Chicago. Tuberculosis breeds as before. The juvenile courts reveal the injury which crowding inflicts upon children, but thus far they have not contributed to remove the evil itself. The parental schools, detention homes, industrial schools and republics leave the streets teeming with candidates for future commitment.

On the lines which we followed, we were reasonably successful. Schools, parks, playgrounds, baths, gymnasiums, clubs, classes, child-labor and compulsory education laws, district nursing, and

school nursing, these and other useful things we have brought to bear to mitigate the disadvantages attending life in congested districts. But we have left to others the attempt to solve the foundation problem of congestion itself.

Ours was the opportunity to see the obvious thing, to study it at short range, to point out its accompaniments and its consequences, to fasten public attention upon it and ask for help in long, patient experimenting for the discovery of the best ways of dealing with it. This opportunity we have lost.

There is some normal relation of men, women and children to the surface of the earth. When population is too sparse, isolation does a deadly work and stupefies human souls. But when people are crowded, poverty, tuberculosis and crime arise among them. Now, no persons of intelligence have more supinely accepted as true and final the observation that population flows cityward; nowhere is oftener repeated the silly story of the old woman who preferred "folks to stumps," than in the settlements.

Instead of assenting to the belief that people who are poor must be crowded, why did we not see, years ago, that people who are crowded must remain poor, growing weaker and less capable of self-help from generation to generation?

If all the attempts which have hitherto been made to establish a rational distribution of population had been failures, our own failure to face the situation would be none the less. But not all these attempts have been failures. The Industrial Removal Bureau has to its credit some thousands of persons successfully transplanted from New York city and prospering in their new homes. The Children's Aid Society of the same city, whatever may be justly said as to certain details of its work in the past, has shown the feasibility of drawing off from the city some thousands of children. The Salvation Army has made brave experiments with colonies in the western states. The Italian Immigrant Aid Society reports that in 1905, 20,000 newly arrived Italians settled down to tenement-house

life in great cities who would willingly have gone to rural districts if only practical and effective aid had been forthcoming at the critical moment.

These agencies have recognized the truth that there is nothing immutable or inevitable in the distribution of population. They have found that guidance and direction are as appropriate to this matter as to getting the sick into hospitals and the illiterate children into schools.

The states, by the establishment of institutions for the insane, the blind, the feeble-minded, the epileptic, the tuberculous, the pauper and the criminal population, show that the distribution of people *after* these have become dependent is a function which receives ever-growing recognition. But tuberculosis, insanity and pauperism are continuing accompaniments of congested population. Who shall say that they cannot be materially reduced by the reduction of congestion?

The federal government by its homestead law, its irrigation undertakings, its regulation of immigration, gives convincing evidence that *laissez faire* is not its only guiding principle with regard to the movement of population.

Is there nothing which can be done appropriately by the cities themselves to influence the inflow of people? Or to affect the distribution of people already in them? Is there not some feasible compromise, or combination of country and city having some of the benefits of both?

None of the things which we have done need have been left undone; and none of the undertakings carried on by the societies referred to would have been appropriate to a settlement. But all might have been strengthened and made more promptly effective if, fifteen years ago, we who were living in the midst of the congestion had recognized its essential character and had fastened the attention of the thoughtful upon it continually to the present day.

Have we not all been a little like the traveler who could not see the city for the houses, who could not see the forest for the trees?

The Industrial Viewpoint

CONDUCTED BY GRAHAM TAYLOR

Aspects of the Canadian Labor Situation.

Canada has for some time been quietly, but most effectively working along the lines of developing governmental authority as a conciliatory agency in industrial disputes. In the first place, a wise measure has been in force for several years by which many disputes are entirely obviated. This is known as the fair wages resolution. It provides that whenever the government decides to have any public work done, it shall request the minister of labor to furnish schedules of what he thinks to be fair wages, dealing with all kinds needed in the proposed work. These schedules are compiled after full investigation, in which representatives are usually sent to the particular region where the work will be done in order to gauge local conditions. The schedules are incorporated in the contracts. This places all contractors on an equal basis so far as wages are concerned. The result of this governmental regulation is that for five years no difficulty or strike has occurred on government contracts. So successful and fair has this arrangement been, that the Grand Trunk Railway has voluntarily referred wage questions in their private work to the minister of labor.

The voluntary conciliation act, however, has been productive of the greatest good in clearing up difficulties when once they have arisen and reached the critical stage, either just before or after the declaration of strike or lockout. Its fundamental basis is the proposition that the government keeps primarily in view the interests of the whole commonwealth. Upon the request of either party to the dispute, or of an outsider like the mayor of the town or a member of parliament, and sometimes on his own initiative, the minister of labor appoints a conciliator who shall proceed to the scene of trouble to use his influence in bringing about an agreement. There is a strong force

which urges the minister to initiate action on his own responsibility in grave cases where neither side seems willing to make the request for a conciliator. He may have to answer on the floor of parliament a question from a member representing the opposing political party asking why he has put the governmental machinery in operation for the welfare of the community.

This responsibility of the minister is the safety and balance of the whole system. He is prevented from placing the interests of the class he represents above those of all the people, by the fact that the whole ministry has to stand together in its responsibility. The minister of trade and commerce shares the responsibility for the acts of the minister of labor, and *vice versa*; and the same thing applies to every minister in the cabinet. In five years no less than thirty-six large strikes have been the subject of governmental intervention. All except three of them have been satisfactorily adjusted. In only one or two instances has it been necessary to resort to a royal commission which shall have the power to compel testimony under oath. The whole plan of conciliation depends for its strength upon the publicity that the minister of labor can give to his report, indicating the vital points at issue, and the conciliatory or obstinate attitude of either side toward a possible settlement. The possibility of swaying public sentiment by this means has proved so potent an influence toward an agreement, that the minister has been able usually to report that the conciliator has achieved success in effecting such an agreement. There can be little doubt that the personality of Deputy Minister of Labor W. L. MacKenzie King, who has often been appointed conciliator, his fairness and disinterestedness have contributed in large degree to the excellent working out of this system. To use words of his own, "There is always a tactful and untactful

way of presenting the reasonableness of a proposition." His success speaks for the tactfulness of his own efforts.

It is interesting to note, in connection with a discussion of Canadian labor matters, that the printers' strike for the eight-hour day has been generally successful throughout the Dominion. One case is worthy of special mention. Winnipeg took the trouble to import sixty-odd printers from England. Upon their arrival, and after the visit of union officials, they declared that they were led to come to Canada upon the representation to them that there was no trouble. Consequently, to the number of about forty, they joined the strike and became members of the typographical union.

**Double Dealing
by Employers
with the
Better Element
in the
Teamsters'
Union.**

It is a curious aftermath of the Chicago teamsters' strike to find some of the largest employers refusing to employ any drivers who are independent of the International Teamsters' Union. That organization was then put under the ban, and its disreputably notorious president, Cornelius P. Shea, was many times indicted and fiercely threatened with the imprisonment he richly deserved.

But now the reputable men in the union, who disavowed his brutal bullying of its members and his lawless violence in the conduct of the strike, are trying to shake off the shackles from themselves and their employers. So determined are they not to tolerate his rule by force that they have suffered ejection from the union and raised the standard of revolt in independent unions. Yet these independent drivers who became such to save their reputation for law abiding citizenship, if not to save their very lives, are failing to get employment. When they apply they find "Shea's men" preferred. The surprising explanation is given to the public that the very employers who so lately were intent upon the condign punishment of Shea and the overthrow of the union, feel safer from strikes by dealing with an international union. However true this generally may be, the inconsistency in taking the point at this particular time and place is at least extraordinary. The discouragement thus

given the better men in their struggle for legitimate unionism is equalled only by the abuse they get when the evils they try to suppress become injurious to employers and a menace to the public.

No subordination of public order and safety, could be made more shamelessly deliberate than by patching up a peace without honor and defeating the efforts of the grand juries and states attorney, to punish the violent disturbers of the city. All the business interests of Chicago, and the safety of its citizens are put in peril of a similar disturbance, only to shield the reputations of a few prominent men from the loss which a fearless prosecution would cost. The stability of trade, the permanence of industrial peace and confidence in the social order are shaken by such temporizing with intolerable abuses and playing fast and loose with the law of the land. The citizenship of such tactics is, to say the least, not entitled to be called "good."

**Men Meet
Men at the
White House.**

That was a typical American scene the other day in the private office of the president of the United States adjoining the cabinet room. Whatever its issue and however we may divide upon the questions there at issue, all Americans have reason to be proud of the essential manliness shown both by the representatives of the American Federation of Labor and by the president of the United States. Our opinions may differ as to whether organized labor has any grievance on the failure of congress to enforce the eight-hour day on the Panama canal; whether there is any danger to American labor from Chinese immigration under the present restrictions; whether the safety of sea-faring labor is sufficiently secured; whether the rights of organized workingmen should be protected against the abuse of the writ of injunction; whether government employes should be deprived of the privilege of petitioning Congress. But none of us will deny the right and duty of those who think they have such grievances frankly and freely to state them to the president. There is not a workingman, however much disappointed he may have been in the president's failure to

meet the wishes of those presenting the grievances, who ought not to be proud of the equal and evident honesty and fearlessness of the manly man who squarely faced the issue raised and met it as a man. Had he cringed and crawled to gain a little temporary political advantage, he not only would have justly failed to gain it, but would have lost the respect of those who differed from him. Man met man, and if the "tug of war" results, it will only follow up the American working men's declaration of their intention to "appeal to the conscience and support of our fellow citizens," which the president accepted as a challenge to be fought out at the polls. With the example of British workingmen in local and imperial politics, Americans have nothing to fear in the increasing prospect of our workingmen entering the political arena. To champion their own rights in the open at the ballot box and in the halls of state and national legislation, will only broaden their citizenship and inevitably lead to the "more democracy" which is the remedy for the evils of democracy.

**Absurd
Conclusion
of the
Chicago
Injunction
Case.**

So far as the present struggle of the International Typographical Union with the Typothetae is concerned, there is little to be said. The situation, as covered in our last resume, has changed but slightly.

Judging from the indications in a number of cities, the union seems to have made considerable gains. This is particularly noticeable in New York. Chicago, where the contest has been most stubborn, has seen only a few minor agreements during the last several weeks between the union and firms which had been lined up with the Typothetae.

The aspect of the struggle in Chicago, however, which has attracted the most attention is the outcome of the controversy over Judge Holdom's injunction order. This has involved a peculiar and unprecedented situation. As announced in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS for February 3, Typographical Union 16 was fined \$1,000, and upon President Wright a thirty days' jail sentence was imposed in addition to a fine of \$150, for violation of the injunction. President Wright

reported to the sheriff, ready to begin serving his time. But the commitment papers had not been signed. Although the sheriff could not put him in jail, Wright was under no bonds whatsoever. He thus occupied the anomalous position of one technically under arrest, and with sentence imposed, yet unable to be incarcerated by the sheriff owing to the fact that the commitment papers were not properly filled out or made available for serving—a thing deliberately planned by the counsel for the Typothetae. This ridiculous state of affairs continued throughout the thirty days prescribed in the sentence. It is easy to imagine that the Typothetae (employers' association), already disquieted by the universal storm of disapproval at the severity of the injunction order, feared to still further crystalize public sentiment against themselves, and therefore used their influence to prevent the jail sentence from being carried out. Ministers' meetings and many broad minded citizens had been outspoken in their condemnation of the injunction, the Methodists having characterized it as un-American, a menace to personal liberty, and contravening the right of free speech in that it "restrained fair argument and persuasive speech." To have jailed President Wright would have placed him in the role of martyr.

Judge Holdom sailed for England, and on hearing of writ of habeas corpus presented before Judge Walker, the court decided that Judge Holdom's decision was correct, but that inasmuch as the prisoners were literally under arrest, though not incarcerated, the time for serving their sentence could not be extended and they were therefore declared free.

**Anti-Injunction
Agitation.**

The extended discussion of the Holdom injunction has already interested many members of the Typographical and other unions in Chicago in the formation of an anti-injunction league.

The Woman's Trade Union League devoted their meeting on March 11, to a consideration of the use of injunctions. In addition to members of the league, there were present a large number of trade union members, both men and women, and law students of Chicago and

Northwestern Universities, besides many other people interested in the subject for discussion. The principal speakers were Dean Hall, of the University of Chicago Law School, and Seymour Stedman, a socialist lawyer.

Dean Hall began with a historic review of the use of injunctions. Mr. Stedman immediately introduced the use of the injunction in labor disputes to-day. Dean Hall saw no great danger to the right of the individual in the loss of trial by jury when the individual is arrested for violating the injunction of a court of equity. Mr. Stedman stated that the danger in that instance lay in the fact that the injunctions were used by capitalists against labor, that the judge was likely to be biased in favor of capitalist tradition and that the rights of the laboring man were more certainly protected and safe-guarded by a trial by jury than by trial by judge. Both men agreed that an injunction restraining from persuasion could not stand the test of law as well as of human rights; in spite of the decision of the Illinois court to the contrary. Both speakers also agreed as to the wrong of the use of affidavits on the ground that an affidavit could not be cross examined or questioned and that in many instances affidavits were sworn to by men whose character and known position would not warrant attaching importance to their statements.

But the speaker who commanded closest attention and who spoke in a quiet, dispassionate and at times humorous way, was John C. Harding, organizer of the Chicago Typographical Union No. 16. Mr. Harding told the story of the printers' strike, the demand for the eight-hour day, the fact that this demand was construed to mean a contract for a union shop, when in point of fact the question of the union shop had been settled previously; he referred to Judge Holdom's sweeping injunction and claimed that no self-respecting man could possibly obey it. He then read some of the restraining clauses:

From following the employes of any of said complainants, to their homes or other places or calling upon them, for the purpose of inducing them to leave the employ of said complainants * * * From attempting to induce customers or other persons to abstain from working for or accepting work from

said complainants or any of them; from attempting to create or enforce any boycott against any of the employes of the complainants or any of them, and from attempting to induce people in their neighborhood or elsewhere not to deal with them. From sending any circulars or other communications to customers or other persons who might deal or transact business with said complainants, or either of them, for the purpose of dissuading such persons from so doing.* * *

Mr. Harding referred to the fact that while Judge Holdom's injunction restrained the union from publishing a list of union shops, the Typothetae was publishing its list of open shops. It had been suggested to the union that it should issue an injunction against the Typothetae for that very thing. But Mr. Harding stated that, in his opinion and that of his fellow members, such an act would be regarded by them as an infringement of individual rights. With admirable consistency and lack of animus, he declared that the union would not use in retaliation an act of such injustice against the employers, although the latter had already used the very same act against the union.

Mr. Harding spoke strongly of the need of an eight-hour day, for the ethical and moral demand in the eight-hour day and regretted that educational and religious institutions as represented by the University of Chicago and the Methodist Book Concern were to be found among the strongest opponents to the eight-hour day movement.

All who listened to the dispassionate, homely way in which the printers' story was told, felt that the fight for human rights could well be intrusted with safety to men of such generosity and unconquerable spirit as John C. Harding, organizer of Typographical Union Number 16.

A Federation of Workingmen's Clubs in London.

In the region about Cambridge House and Oxford House, London, a most successful federation of workingmen's social clubs has been organized. The federation is divided into sections and the southern division now includes no less than fourteen clubs. A well furnished room at Cambridge House has been set aside for the use of the divisional secretaries as an office and a meeting place for delegates. Accord-

ing to a recent number of the *Cambridge House Magazine*, the winter games competition was a distinct success. It brought out a keen sportsmanlike feeling. It is now proposed to start a debating society. It is hoped that the debates will take the same circuit as the divisional meetings which are now held at different clubs, each club being taken in alphabetical order. "One great advantage of the federation," says *Cambridge House Magazine*, "is that it brings Cambridge House into closer touch with the good work that is being done by Oxford House, and serves to widen the outlook of the officials and members of the various clubs connected with the two establishments by promoting that good feeling which is the key to successful co-operation." Many Cambridge students are interesting themselves in the various clubs.

Few means of furthering the campaign for the union label have proven so successful as the union label fair which was held in Chicago early in February—the first affair of the kind to take place in that city. It is frequently a cause for reproach by many union leaders against the mass of working people, that they fail to demand the union label when they are buying goods. Many a speech has been made claiming that half the battle of union labor would be won if only the union man and his wife would in every instance insist on the label on everything they purchase. Trade union journals are filled with pointed logic that the union man who buys non-union goods is in fact himself employing non-union labor.

As educational propaganda along this line, therefore, came the recent label fair. It was held in a hall in the very center of a large working population and it afforded an object lesson in its display of the label in connection with the work it stands for. Each trade had a booth. The carpenters' union donated the services of its members in erecting the booths, and the painters did the same to adorn them. The cigarmakers had a large representation of their well-known blue label, brilliantly illuminated with electric lights, and inscribed in colored

letters. In addition to the work they did on all the booths, the carpenters exhibited several pieces of fine workmanship, including a spiral staircase. The garment workers showed everything made with a label in the way of men's clothing, various employers, manufacturing union label goods only, furnishing overalls, a dress suit and everything between. The bakers fed the multitudes with souvenirs of union label bread. A union man made whisk brooms in a booth largely made out of broom straw. Among the other unions represented in the exhibit were the Allied Printing Trades, the Amalgamated Woodworkers, the Brewery Workers, and the Amalgamated Glass Workers.

Expositions of this kind—and already plans are being made for another in Chicago next year on still more extensive lines—should arouse the interest of the working people in seeing to it that in their capacity as consumers they adhere to union principles in demanding the label. The very fact that the products of union labor are on exhibition should greatly encourage the movement led by many union men, and supported by many outside friends of the best that is in trades unionism, to the end that superiority of workmanship be more and more clearly marked in union made goods.

**A Trades Union
University
Extension
Center.**

The trades and labor assembly of Springfield, Ohio, deserves great credit and many followers in successfully establishing a new and advanced type of service which the unions everywhere should render not only to their own members but to their respective communities. For five years they have sustained with great success one of the largest University Extension lecture-centers which is conducted under the auspices of the University of Chicago. The men of the assembly were not content with the general educational results incidental to the meetings and work of the unions. Their members thus derive no little information, discipline, and increased capacity for the management of their own interests. The keener insight, the concerted action and broader outlook of union men in many industries are in

marked contrast with the lack of this social intelligence and action upon the part of many of their non-union fellow-workman. Nevertheless, the meetings of most unions are too strictly confined to "the order of business" and questions of wages, hours, and conditions of work to educate their members broadly enough for their own interest, much less for that of the community. So these Springfield unionists decided to do some pioneering. They raised enough money at their labor day picnic to buy a fine stereopticon and to secure from the University of Chicago the services of Prof. Chas. Zueblin. The large city hall was placed at their disposal without cost. The newspapers freely advertised the lectures. The course on phases of British municipal life was thrown open to the public without any charge for admission. The average attendance on the six lectures was over 800, making a total of nearly 5,000. The next winter Prof. Zueblin returned for a second course on American municipal progress. The attendance grew to an average of 1,000 and a total of 6,000. The two following years Professor Ira W. Howerth gave courses, one of which on *Our Country* drew 1,400 people, and the other on phases of the labor question, a large and steady attendance. This winter Professor Graham Taylor's course on social tendencies of modern industry, held an average 800 hearers, despite the serious disturbances, locally, of the unfortunate race riots.

Those who know so little of trades unions as to think of them only as fighting machines with no other possibility, will have to revise their unjust judgment if such educational movements as this continue to develop and succeed. In England the trades unions have for many years exerted an increasingly powerful and wholesome influence in burrough and county councils and in parliament. Public interests in America, as well as the welfare of the legitimate labor movement, demand that the labor unions separate themselves less from the community in a class-conscious way and take their own part in bearing the burdens and promoting the progress of the body politic. We commend the "conclusion" of the Springfield Trades and Labor Assembly

to the serious attention of all our labor unions everywhere:—

The assembly is convinced beyond the shadow of a doubt that its experience with university extension work is the best investment it has ever made. It therefore urges central bodies and trades assemblies to consider carefully its merits as an instrument of pressing forward the fundamental principle of organized labor—education. It in no way interferes with the educational work constantly carried on by the trades unions, nor does it exclude from the platform the able leaders of the movement. On the contrary it stimulates the study of economic questions, and gains for the representatives of organized labor, large audiences and a respectful hearing. To other assemblies we say: take it up at once; persistent, practical and systematic efforts will bring success.

T. J. Creager, secretary of the Trades and Labor Assembly, Springfield, Ohio, may be addressed for information on the subject.

What Are the Facts About Women in Industry?

Many things are now conspiring to direct attention to the question of women in industry. The National Federation of Women's Clubs and the Woman's Trade Union League have been increasingly active in focusing public attention upon it. And the agitation for an adequate governmental inquiry to ascertain conditions, has been enthusiastically endorsed on all hands. President Roosevelt has emphasized its need. The Pittsburgh convention of the American Federation of Labor passed a resolution asking that Congress appropriate funds for that purpose.

Public interest has led to much magazine literature in this connection. Perhaps the most authoritative is to be found in the careful examination of the twelfth census statistics, begun in the January number of the *Journal of Political Economy* by Edith Abbott and Sophonisba P. Breckinridge. Incidentally it is worthy of mention that this issue of the *Journal* is the first as a monthly, instead of a quarterly publication by the University of Chicago Press.

This introductory article deals with the question of numbers only: (1), the relation of the number of women gainfully employed in 1900 to those similarly occupied in 1890 with reference to (a) the total population; (b) the male population gainfully employed; (c) the total female population; and (2), the

numbers in which women are going into the various occupations, and the extent to which women compete with men. The statistics show that in 1900 there were five million women gainfully employed, that the rate of increase for the decade in the number of women employed was greater than that for men, and that the number of women employed has increased more rapidly than the female population.

It is shown that out of 303 separate occupations scheduled by the twelfth census, women are found in 295. In but three of them the percentage of women has decreased—saloon keepers, carpet factory operatives, and woolen mill operatives. In the latter two, the number of men has also decreased, so that we have the interesting fact that the only occupation in which the number of women has decreased at the same time that the number of men has increased, is saloon keeping.

Turning to the labor press, we find that it, too, is giving increasing consideration to the matter of women in industry. The *American Federationist* is publishing a series of articles taking up particular trades. They are written by those who have intimate knowledge, frequently as workers, of the special conditions of

the trade upon which they write. For instance, the fifth article in the series is devoted to the *Need of Organization Among Shirtmakers*, and the author is a member of the laundry committee of the Woman's Trade Union League.

In the *Railroad Trainmen's Journal*, for January, the present discussion of the question in England is given space, and part of the report of the British Federation of Trade Unions—written by Edward Cadbury—is reprinted. Mr. Cadbury finds that even of greater importance than the passage of more advanced legislation on the matter of women's labor, is the "enforcement of existing legislation by the creation of a strong public opinion, and the appointment of an adequate staff of women factory inspectors." Of the latter there are only nine for the manufacturing industries in the whole of Great Britain. The \$100,000 necessary to bring the number up to fifty, is effectively contrasted with the enormous sums spent on the army and navy.

The *White Slavery in the South* is receiving attention also from the *Railroad Trainmen's Journal*, the January and February numbers containing illustrated articles by H. P. Burbage on the conditions in the southern cotton mills.

Loose Threads in a Skein

What the mortar and pestle is to the druggist or a near-sighted wooden Indian to a cigar seller, her satchel is to the visiting nurse. To be sure, the oldest training school for nurses in the country—Bellevue—has a stork on one leg for the insignia of the pin worn by its graduates. But that always involves explaining that it is just a stork—no kin to the bird of the baby myth. While the satchel is self-explanatory—ever present—compact of the tools of her calling—an emblem for the craft.

Whether or not such a non-professional object as a diary ever slips into this satchel, it is certain that no one gathers a greater fund of the tellable in human nature than the visiting nurse. On other pages the significance and serious spirit of the work have been set forth. There is room still for a little of the other side—the infectious humor of things which it is well that all the aseptic

soberness of dealing with life and death cannot crowd out.

* * *

If members of the staff of the Visiting Nurse Association of Chicago, then, kept diaries in their satchels, these would have been some of their jottings:

Visiting nurse hunting for a case at No. 1 Gary alley inquired of a dozen little urchins, playing in the opening between two buildings, where Gary alley was. "Huh! (with much disgust from the chorus) 'You're standin' in it.'"

New nurse, calling on Mrs. G. for first time, heard this: "So you're new at the bizness. Well, jes' say to me 'How are ye?' Then ye gives me fifty cents, and then ye goes."

Mrs. A., to her friend around the corner, Mrs. B., who has an ulcer on her leg. "Why

don't yez have a trimmed nurse? She'll put fertilized rags on ye sore and it'll soon be well."

Visiting nurse—"Will you please tell me where Mrs. Kasianosky lives?"

Woman—"Dat I kin not do. I no crochet (associate) with people in dis place. I be sorry."

Irish Woman—"Sure noice (nurse); sure, and could ye be afther telling me anything about the intimator (incubator) for little babies? Ah! yez have seen one! Says I to me frind,—what wiel people be after invinting next, says I, sure, and to think of it, intimators for little babies."

The visiting nurse took several little children through the flower gardens and conservatory at Washington park. She told the little ones the names of flowers and ferns, and on reaching a date palm, said, "and this, children, is a date palm." A little five year old girl exclaimed, "Oh! is this where people come to make their dates?"

* * *

Lily, age six, was a patient of the visiting nurse for the past five weeks,—a "burn case" resulting from too close contact with matches while playing house in the shed. With the daily visits of the nurse the family became familiar not only with the use of ordinary soap and water, but also familiarized with the more complicating uses of green soap, gauze, bandages, rubber sheet, etc., and never tired of emphasizing this new addition to its vocabulary. The event of Lily's sickness marked a new era in the life of the family, and seldom was the dressing done without an audience consisting of the family and some one or another intruder who happened to gain admission unnoticed.

After the part was cared for, the nurse was invited into the woodshed, to see what each one of the children had bought for the nickel presented them a few days ago. Ernestina invested in a black puppy. Willie secured from Georgie Hanson's big brother two white mice, a "he-male and a female" as he said. Rosie, aged four, was deluded into buying an ornamental white shell hat-pin; and Lily over-ate on bananas.

After breaking away, and moving on at the pace of a visiting nurse, there seemed, after a few minutes, a call from a distance; then plainer, "Nurse! Nurse! Oh, Nurse!" On looking back and anticipating new trouble, the nurse was met by the anxious little red face of Ernestina, gasping for breath, and exclaiming: "You almost-forgot-to write on here!" (thereby presenting the record sheet).

A school nurse* tells* an amusing incident which happened recently in New York. A teacher explained thoroughly to her class how the spinal column is constructed, by small irregular shaped bones being set one above the other, with cushions of cartilage between to allow free movement from side to side and forwards and backwards; also

that through these bones is an opening which contains the spinal cord, the brain being located at the upper extremity. Next day, wishing to find out how much the children in the class remembered, she asked for the answer. It came from small Mary, in the following manner: "Please, teacher, it's a wiggley, wobbly bone in your back. Your head sits on one end and you sit on the other."

* * *

Mr. McGinley, an Irishman of more than seventy had been hurt by a fall. The injury was not in itself serious, but on account of his years it seemed as if he might not rally from the shock. He had been janitor of a little old tenement house where he and his wife had done the work together. After the accident, Mrs. McGinley had all the work to do alone, beside taking care of the old man, confined to his bed in the little dark inside room. The burden of the work, added to her grief for her husband, made a heavy load for the wife to carry. The grief was genuine but the burden of care and work made her feel almost desperate and with the freedom from convention that characterizes tenement house life she frankly expressed her feeling.

A day or two after Mr. McGinley's fall the nurse came in in her rounds and asked how he was. "Shure," she said, "I had the praste fur him last night an now he's waitin' fur his hour. Thank God, he's out o' me hands now, he's in the hands o' God, but I'm afraid he'll be laggin' on me."

Later the nurse was caring for the old man in the dark interior bedroom, by the light of a candle which the wife held over him. He was perfectly conscious of all that was said and done, yet Mrs. McGinley exclaimed: "Ain't it terrible that there do be no signs o' death in him."

Another day, as the nurse was leaving, Mrs. McGinley said in reply to some expression of sympathy, "Shure an' I thoct he'd be dyin'. I thought God wud take him to himself an' I'd have me liberty to do me wurruk and kape me bit home—but I dunno." Then, in a moment, "Faith, I thoct he'd be wearin' away an' wearin' away—but he have no thochts of it!"

After many weeks the old man died and in the excitement of it all Mrs. McGinley did not at first realize the loneliness that it meant to her. She said with much pride, "Shure, he was the nicest carpsie ye iver did see—all so white and so bright."

But a few days later when the nurse asked after her welfare, she said, "Shure, I'm cryin' all the time fur loneliness. Whin he was alive he was here anyway. But now there's nobody all the day an' by night it's worse."

Nurses in advising hospital treatment often meet with fixed objections. One girl was urged to go to hospital for removal of fatty tumor. The Celtic neighbor on the same floor strongly urged against it. Said she, "They're alwus sayin' oprashun. My own Maggie, when she went, the dochters they said, said

they, 'She's got apendecetes, that new kind of thing. And I begged, O, dochter darlint, give her two days' chance. And what do you think? Before thim two days was up, she caughed it up.'

* * *

A case called one of the early workers of the Henry Street Settlement to a house in the neighborhood of Hamilton and Catherine streets. Every day she passed two Chinamen at work on one of the lower floors, and came to nod to them. So an inquiry as to the other John was natural the morning that only one of them was there. And the answer was this:

"Him in hop'tal. Clistee-an gentleman hit 'im on the head."

* * *

A member of the staff of the Henry Street Settlement informed the Department of Labor of a gross violation of the child labor law. The department was most grateful. One of the younger members of the staff tells how impressed she was. She would perform kindred service. Her first offender was a bootblack—obviously of school age. She accosted him.

"Little boy, why aren't you in school?"

"Huh—it's Saturday," said the little boy.

This was dampening to one's ardor. But some days later she stopped a youngster selling papers. It was Friday.

"Little boy, why aren't you in school?"

"Cheese it—don't you know it's after four o'clock," he said.

A week went by, when she saw another little fellow, trudging along in front of her with a great bundle. It was not Saturday. It was not after 4 o'clock. Here was her chance.

"Little boy, why aren't you in school?"

Her protege looked up—a dwarf—a bit of an old man.

* * *

The following little stories were written for the *Johns Hopkins Alumnae Magazine*, by Ellen N. LaMotte, a district nurse of the Instruction Visiting Nurse Association of Baltimore. "These little incidents," she writes, "have done much to lessen the tension of difficult days and to brighten those which seemed rather too full of the sufferings of these district people. In all cases the humor was unconscious on the part of the people themselves, and therein lies its greatest charm—the quaint and ingenious manner of thinking and feeling, which it is the nurse's privilege to come closely in contact with and to appreciate."

* * *

"Big Aleck" was a fine old negro of the old type. He and his sister, Aunt Mary Lizzie, lived together in a tumbledown little house in — alley, which house was ornamented with old junk of all sorts, trophies of the chase, gleaned in the pursuit of his profession, a rag dealer. One day the nurse asked Aleck his age and the old man hesitated and scratched his head in a puzzled way before replying. The gray wool about his ears was

stuffed full of matches, as being a more convenient place than pockets to keep them in, and he removed a match and lit his pipe while "studying" over the difficult problem. Finally he answered: "I don't know 'm, I wuz bo'n in slavery, but once when our church got afire, 'bout twenty years ago, ma age done got burnt up."

* * *

One day the nurse found Aunt Mary Lizzie much disturbed over something. The old darky stood in the doorway of her little house, peering anxiously up and down the alley, her pipe gone out, the faded blue handkerchief slipping off her gray head, and a look of great anxiety and trouble on her face: "It's Sa'ah!" she exclaimed, "I is lost Sa'ah!" Then she raised her voice and called "Sa'ah! Oh, Sa'ah! Nice pretty gal! Come in off dis alley, Sa'ah! Come in at once!"

Presently in response to the summons, "Sarah" appeared from a neighboring doorway and catching sight of Aunt Mary Lizzie, waddled slowly across to the old woman and stood quacking before her—a large, dirty, white duck. Aunt Mary Lizzie's face beamed. "Sa'ah!" she exclaimed, "My pretty gal—my nice pretty gal!" "But Aunt Mary Lizzie" objected the nurse, "how can you call 'Sarah' a nice pretty girl—why she's simply covered with dirt?"

The old woman's eyes were filled with deepest reproach: "Dat ain' dirt," she began with dignity. "Least not ezackley. You see 'm, once a while ago Sa'ah she had a gemman duck—a husban' duck. 'Bout six weeks 'go that husban' duck he died, an' Sa'ah's just kinder kep' on black ever sence."

* * *

"And who are you?" asked the nurse of a small child of seven or eight who opened the door for her. The child was one she had not seen in the house before, although she had been visiting there regularly for some weeks.

"Please, ma'am," came the answer, "I'm gran'ma's little niece."

* * *

Old Aunt Mary Lizzie was sitting one day on the door step, smoking her clay pipe and as she saw the district nurse turn into the alley, she rose to welcome her dear "doctor lady." On leading the way into the little front room, the floor of which was on a level with the street, the one chair, a large upholstered rocker, was found occupied by two chickens, a hen and a rooster, whom the old woman unceremoniously turned out with many expressions of rage.

"Bill an' Annie," she exclaimed, "git right down and give de lady dat cheer! Ain't you got no manners?" Then as she watched the late occupants wander in an unconcerned way towards the kitchen, she turned to the nurse and explained apologetically: "Miss, you'll jes' have to 'scuse dem two, dat Bill an' Annie. Dey's plumb ignorant. I tries to teach 'em—I does my bes' to try an' teach 'em, but dey jes' natchelly aint mannery."

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Tuberculosis Exhibition in Chicago.

Attractively housed in the rooms of the Municipal Museum in the Public Library building, the Tuberculosis Exhibition was opened to the public on April 2 for its stay of nearly one month in Chicago. Although the space is somewhat limited, a careful arrangement of the exhibit in alcoves enables one standing in the center of each room to see into all the alcoves surrounding, while the central space is very effectively used for the grouping of exhibits. One of these is a group of model sanatorium buildings placed in a miniature park. The models represent various sanatoria throughout the country, already built and in use, including the well-known White Haven sanatorium in Pennsylvania and the Agnes Memorial in Denver. The arrangement shows each one to better advantage than if it were exhibited by itself.

Another special feature that is attracting the attention of the visitors is a full-size duplicate of the tent used at the Ottawa, Illinois, tent colony. It contains a complete sample set of the furniture in actual use.

One alcove is devoted to exhibits by the New York Charity Organization Society and the Consumers' League. Another contains the pathological display. Medical men are always in attendance to explain this or any other part of the general exhibition. The other alcoves contain other distinctive features, one showing the manner of treatment in prison sanatoria. But Chicago, of course, takes prominent place. An unfailing object of interest is a series of various Chicago ward maps, in each of which the tubercu-

losis cases are indicated by pins with large and vari-colored heads.

Lectures, with demonstration by stereopticon slides, are given every afternoon at four o'clock, and the attendance at each is testing the capacity of the hall. The central location of the exhibition in the downtown section helps, no doubt, to swell the number that attend lectures. When the month is over, it is planned to send a small traveling exhibit upon a tour of the neighborhood centers in the small parks on the South Side, taking the place of a school garden exhibit which is now making a similar tour under the auspices of the Municipal Museum.

Opening Chicago's Tuberculosis Exhibition.

The formal opening of the exhibition in Chicago on April 2 drew a large and distinguished audience. Special invitations were issued. A number of short addresses were given, by Governor De-
neen, Commissioner of Health Whalen, of Chicago; President George W. Webster, of the State Board of Health; President Edmund J. James, of the University of Illinois; Dr. Emil G. Hirsch; Professor Charles R. Henderson, of the University of Chicago; Miss Jane Addams; Dr. B. J. Cigrand, of the board of directors of the Public Library; Dr. James A. Egan, secretary of the Illinois State Board of Health; and Dr. Charles L. Mix, chairman of the executive committee of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute. Governor De-
neen quoted statistics showing that over three of the sixteen millions appropriated by the state for charitable purposes were devoted to the amelioration of the condition of the diseased

and afflicted members of society. This was to show that the state's power and resources are limited. He said that the state might aid in the work of stamping out tuberculosis, but he hoped the organizations formed for that special purpose would place emphasis on the instruction of the afflicted and their friends and the public in the home treatment of the malady.

Dr. Mix, however, plead insistently for a state sanatorium. He declared that even though it could not take care of all the cases, it nevertheless would accomplish great good, especially in missionary work which those returned home cured could do most effectively.

Under the direction of Miss Olga Nethersole, with the participation of herself and other artists, a very successful matinee musical was given at one of the theatres on Thursday, April 2, for the benefit of a free dispensary for poor consumptives, to be established by the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute.

Women in Industry

Within the past fortnight two cases have come up before the Court of Special Sessions of New York City involving those sections of the Labor Law which forbid the employment of women in factories after 9 P. M. or before 6 A. M., and which limit their hours of work to sixty a week. The employers have appealed on the ground of the constitutionality of the law, and now for the first time in this state it will come up for judicial scrutiny.

The decision of the courts will be of vital importance to the 230,000 women employed in manufacturing in the state. It will be a matter of keenest interest to learn whether the courts will uphold the power of the state to legislate for the physical and moral welfare of these workers. In Illinois, the decision in a similar case declared such a law unconstitutional as imposing unwarranted restrictions upon the right to contract. But in Massachusetts a fifty-eight hour law for women has been upheld, as a valid health and police regulation of the state.

The latest decision of the supreme court upon the restriction of hours of labor (*Re Lochner vs. New York*, April, 1905), apparently presents a partial reversal of this important decision. The ten-hour law for bakers in New York is held unconstitutional. The right of the state to restrict hours of labor, as a police measure, is not denied by the court in this case; the point of disagreement is the degree of unhealthfulness or danger in the trade at issue.

If the New York law—so conspicuously necessary a measure under the police power of the state to protect the health and morals of the women workers in factories—were to be reversed, all girls over sixteen years of age could legally work all night long, or be dismissed at any hour of the night.

Medical Testimony of the Evils of Child Labor.

The first legislation to restrict child labor in England grew out of the protest of physicians in the city of Manchester in 1797. From that time until the present day, many associations of physicians, as well as many eminent members of the medical fraternity, have testified to both the physical and mental results of premature employment.

A very strong statement on this subject, prepared by Dr. John S. Fulton, secretary of the state board of health of Maryland, was an important factor in securing the passage of the child labor law before the Maryland legislature the past fortnight. It was signed by fifty-nine of the most prominent physicians of Baltimore, including such men as Drs. L. F. Barker and W. S. Thayer, who have taken up Dr. Osler's work at Johns Hopkins Medical School and Hospital; Drs. James Bosley, the health commissioner of Baltimore, and C. Hampson Jones, the assistant commissioner, and Dr. W. S. Baer, an orthopaedic specialist. It was as follows:

To the general assembly of Maryland:

The undersigned petitioners respectfully ask the general assembly of Maryland to consider the following propositions bearing on the merits of the Dorton bill, now pending, known as the child labor bill.

Wherever children are freely employed in gainful occupations the population suffers excessive physical injury which is manifested in three different ways, as follows:

First.—By a comparatively high death rate in industrial occupations employing children. A high mortality rate between 10 and 30 years of age is the more significant because 40 per cent. of the living population is always found between 10 and 30 years of age (in cities 50 per cent), and because under normal conditions the lowest mortality is always experienced between the ages of 10 and 30. A high mortality in these years means proportionately shorter duration of working efficiency. It means less accomplishment per unit of time and fewer units of time per individual.

Second.—The loss is expressed by relative incapacity of women for motherhood, in decreasing fecundity of marriage, in disproportionate illegitimacy, in feeble children and in higher mortality for both mothers and children. Child labor, therefore, involves the population in increased liability to waste and diminished possibility of repair.

Third.—In the surviving population the effects of child labor are expressed in an inferior physical type, which may become distinctive in much the same way as the physical types commonly attributed to adverse conditions of climate or civilization are distinctive. The great manufacturing centres of England furnish examples of such deterioration, the physical inferiority being strikingly apparent to travelers and well known to students of the subject, though but lightly considered by the people who have been reduced to this status in the course of three or four generations. That this deteriorating physical type is of national importance is shown by the fact that during the late war in South Africa the English standards of admission to military service were lowered four times, because the country would not yield, under pre-existing standards, enough recruits to carry on a war of so great magnitude.

We respectfully ask your honorable body to reflect further that such results have accrued to the English people under industrial conditions more favorable in many ways than those now prevailing in the United States, and that, while the general neglect of vital statistics in the United States prevents us from offering figures to show the precise effect of child labor in destroying life, reliable evidence of physical impairment of surviving children is available in this country, affording proof that child labor produces in the United States the same physical deterioration observed elsewhere, and the same depravation of mind and morals and the same vicious perversions of family life in our own as in other countries.

We are persuaded that the employment of children under 14 years of age in mills and factories is most wasteful of human energy,

is a monstrous injustice to American children, and is an urgent occasion of remedial legislation.

**Chicago's
Backward
Step in
House Drains.**

After ten months of controversy the provision of the Chicago plumbing ordinance requiring a ten-foot pressure test of all newly laid house drains under the supervision of the Department of Health again was brought before the Chicago city council, and defeated by the acceptance of a substitute amendment lowering the test to a two-foot head and placing the jurisdiction with the commissioner of public works.

That the result of the vote on the council floor practically defeats the purpose of the ordinance to insure safe drain construction is conceded by the supporters of the measure.

There is little reason to believe that, with the jurisdiction transferred from the Department of Health to the sewer division of the Public Works Department, the two-foot pressure test will prove more effective in securing safe drainage than have the so-called inspections heretofore made by the sewer division.

The inspectors in this division are hand in glove with the tile pipe interests and have displayed pernicious activity throughout the entire controversy, their partisanship being so manifest and their attempts to influence the aldermen so brazen that Commissioner Whalen was obliged to call the attention of the mayor to this abuse of official position.

That the measure owes its defeat largely to this influence and to the exparte representations of the tile pipe manufacturers is manifest.

It was proved by practical tests, to the satisfaction of the Council committee, that the prescribed test as applied to tile is not unreasonable, but that when laid with proper care as to jointing, this material will withstand even greater pressures. Nevertheless, as a concession to the tile representatives, the committees in recommending the passage of the ordinance made a reduction in the pressure head from ten to eight feet.

In spite of these concessions the tile pipe men continued to raise the cry that

their material was being "put out of business," and made unsupported and varying statements regarding the greatly increased cost which they claimed would result from any test.

Equally unreliable statements were made as to the difference between first cost of tile and cast iron drains for cottage construction, and on this inadequate foundation was built up the argument that the cost of the poor man's cottage home must not be increased, regardless of the prime consideration that his house must be made first of all a safe habitation.

By such fallacious arguments the judgment of the city fathers was obscured and they were blinded to the real issue—private interest versus the public health.

Discouraging as is the action of the council in defeating the efforts of Commissioner Whalen and Chief Sanitary Inspector Hedrick to safeguard the public health by greater stringency in the requirements for house drainage, there still remains a very considerable net gain in the public interest which has been aroused and the more general appreciation of the necessity for the greatest possible security in the construction and maintenance of that foundation upon which all good plumbing is based—the house drain.

Notes of the Week

American Social Science Association.—The general meeting of the American Social Science Association will be held in the United Charities Building, New York, from May 2 to May 4. The immigration question occupies the first two sessions of the convention. Different phases of the problem will be discussed by Bourke Cochran, William Williams, ex-commissioner of immigration at the port of New York; Raymond L. Griffiss, president of the Southern Immigration Society; L. J. Ellis, Dr. P. H. Bryce, Cyrus L. Sulzberger, president of the Industrial Reward Society, and Prescott F. Hall.

The department of jurisprudence will have charge of Thursday's meeting. Julius M. Mayer, attorney-general of the state of New York, and John Brooks Leavitt will speak. The final session will be devoted to educational topics, the morning meeting being given over to educational work in our reformatory institutions, and the final evening meeting to immigrant education. David S. Snedden of Teachers' College, Columbia, will

discuss the educational work of juvenile reformatory institutions, while Dr. Albert C. Hill, superintendent of education in the state prisons of New York, and A. E. Upham, director of Elmira Reformatory School, will speak on prison school education and the educational work at the Elmira Reformatory. Paul Abelson and Gustave Straubenmuller will tell of the education work among the immigrants.

Chicago Jewish Orphan Asylum.—The Marks Nathan Jewish Orphan Asylum, to accommodate 150 children, will be opened in Chicago, in a few weeks. It is named for the late Marks Nathan, a Chicago pioneer who bequeathed \$15,000 towards the erection of the home. An additional \$25,000 has been raised to complete the structure. The officers are, Jacob Levy, president; Joseph Rothschild, vice-president; David Sternberg, treasurer, Julius Jaffe, secretary.

Charities' Conference, New York.—The Fourth Monthly Conference under the auspices of the New York Charity Organization Society will be held April 17 at 11 A. M. in the United Charities Building. The topics are: *The Sixty-Hour Labor Law for Women*, Florence Kelley; *A Mills Hotel for Women*, Mrs. Clarence Burns; *Can Women Without Homes Pay Board and Lodging and Buy Needed Clothing on Five or Six Dollars a Week, in this City?* Miss A. C. Smith.

Massachusetts Bill for the Blind.—The bill providing for a permanent improvement of the conditions of the blind has been reported from the ways and means committee of the Massachusetts legislature, and the chances are very favorable indeed for its passage.

Music for the Many.—Thursday of this week a recital was given at Mendelsohn Hall, by the pupils of the Music School Settlement; and on Sunday afternoon, April 22, the Young Men's Symphony Orchestra, of which A. D. Volpe is conductor, will give a concert showing the work during the past year, of this group of young East Side musicians. A. L. Seligman is president of the organization which has for its purpose the development of such artistic talent as would often be misdirected or lost through lack of ability to procure an adequate training.

Annual Meeting of University Settlement.—The nineteenth annual meeting of the University Settlement of New York was held at Sherry's on April 5. President Butler of Columbia presided and among the speakers were Professor Felix Adler, Judge Howland, Health Commissioner Darlington and James H. Hamilton, head worker. Mrs. Edward R. Hewitt gave an account of the Women's Auxiliary. The following trustees to serve for three years were elected: John H. Finley, H. P. Wertheim, Willard V. King, Stephen H. Olin and Charles P. Howland.

The Improvement of Labor Conditions

Trade life—trade agreements—the negro in industry—the working woman—
discussed before the American Academy

The tenth annual meeting of the American Academy of Social and Political Science was given over to a discussion of the improvement of labor conditions in the United States.

What has been true of the academy since its inception was especially characteristic of this decennial meeting. The effort has been primarily not to offer the final word in history or theory within its field, but rather to afford opportunity for a more or less scientific expression to the challenges and countersigns which pass where there is debate and development in practical affairs. The present judgments of men in the forefront of industry and social movements have been looked to in interpreting what is in process, and have been placed beside the deductions of more academic research.

Interest, perhaps, centered most keenly in the closing session, when the condition of working women was gone into, but the opening meeting, Friday afternoon, which had to do with the length of the working or trade life, was remarkable in an address which formulated a constructive social policy with respect to this industrial problem. The speaker was Frederick L. Hoffman, statistician of the Prudential Insurance company. Joseph Wharton had opened the meeting, expressing its purposes as having to do with the discussion of those things which make for "a compacter and happier fabric for human communities," and Dr. Rowe, who retires from the presidency of the academy for a year's study of the Latin-American states, had introduced as chairman, Commissioner Charles P. Neill of the United States Department of Labor. The industrial statisticians, said Dr. Neill, who tell us how far the burning of a sheet of writing paper will carry a locomotive, or the money cost items which enter into a completed machine, have not gone to the bottom of the matter. There is another cost—a social cost, measured in terms of fatigue, measured in terms of

sweat, too often in terms of ruined health and of human life. We have come to ask whether, as we reduce the financial cost of production, the human cost is not rising.

The social aim in industry, Mr. Hoffman maintained, should be the maximum industrial efficiency coupled with the longest human life. Fifty years of industrial life—from fifteen to sixty-five—ought not to be impracticable. Most estimates of the value of such a trade life have been from the standpoint of a man's earning capacity with relation to himself and his family, rather than as an economic unit in society. Mr. Hoffman's point was that there is a real economic value to the community in every year of a workingman's life—he placed it at not less than \$300 a year, but the amount is not material—and that there is a net gain to society for every year which his trade life is lengthened toward the maximum.

Fifty years at \$300 is \$15,000. In proportion as lives are wasted by sickness or accident or other causes, we curtail the net gain to society, so that in some occupations it is less than \$10,000—less than \$5,000—less than \$3,000. And this social loss is a loss more important than the loss to the man himself.

Half of the Deaths Preventable.

Of deaths falling between fifteen years and sixty-five years over one-half are preventable, according to Mr. Hoffman, in the sense that they could be prevented by a deliberate policy of governmental control. These are the fifty-two per cent. due to tuberculosis, accidents and typhoid. These men are entitled to live long, live healthily, live well, attain the greatest industrial efficiency. In so far as failure to attain to these things, is related to particular employments, Mr. Hoffman brought to his argument the hard facts of occupational mortality—among potters, and stone cutters, and brakemen, and miners, and so to the end of the list. Most people are only con-

cerned with the fatalities in the railroad service. How often injuries mean industrial incapacity and a sorry life, the statistics never show. Witness Mr. Robert's example of the workman, classed with the injured, who had lost both arms and both legs. Of 100 stone cutters in a line, eighty die from one cause alone, due to the dust of their calling. While the man is carving out the stone to commemorate another's life, he is cutting out his own death. Ours is a policy of indifference—not merely governmental and corporate, but individual, for none is more careless than the workman in many of these hazardous callings.

In the face of this stupendous social loss there has been no American attempt to give an accurate survey. In all the thousands of health reports gotten out in this country, there is not a line on occupations in relation to mortality. Mr. Hoffman's own town of Orange has as high a death rate from hatter's shakes as Philadelphia does from typhoid, yet the local health board takes no cognizance of it. Most of the reports of the state labor bureaus he held to be equally valueless. There has been no such comprehensive work undertaken here as that represented by the English report on physical deterioration—"one of the most suggestive documents of all time along lines which lead to a knowledge of the true physical status of a nation."

Mr. Hoffman's Program. The program, then, put forward by Mr. Hoffman based upon his work as statistician for one of the great industrial insurance companies, included these five points:

1. Scientific governmental inquiry into the trade life of persons employed in the principal industries, to determine conditions affecting longevity, health and efficiency.
2. A second commission to investigate as to the physical standards which should be prerequisite to admission to a calling.
3. Laws requiring employers to keep records of their employees. Because of lack of factory records, an enormous amount of human experience is lost.
4. Factory inspection on a medical basis.
5. Compulsory medical examination of everyone employed under 21 years of age—at the outset and annually; excluding those who fall below the minimum physical requirements.

"The interests of the nation transcend the sordid gauge of a short-sighted employer," said Mr. Hoffman in conclusion. "The average life of the American workman is not what it should be."

In the Machine Shop. James O'Connell of Washington, president of the International Association of machinists, and Dennis A. Hayes of Philadelphia, president of the Glass Bottle Blowers' Association, discussed conditions in these callings inimical to a full trade life. Said Mr. O'Connell:

Speeds have increased, tools cut deeper, old men have disappeared, and the youth, fresh from school, hopeful, elated, ambitious to enter this world of levers and flying wheels, faces an inevitable collapse if there is no loosening up of the tension. Pathology has not yet entered the door of the machine shop, but we know that this nervous strain, day in day out, year in year out, is shortening longevity. The machine shop man who feels the first languor, cannot run off to mountain or shore. He reads a slyly worded advertisement. The sequel—temporary relief, but in the end, disaster. I don't wish to say that speed is responsible for all the drug habit among working men. But the weak lip, the drawn mouth, the bad skin, tell their tale.

Trade unionism urges not a lessened speed but shortened hours that will mean longer life. Employers to-day who advertise for machinists state the age limit at thirty-five. After thirty-five you are not wanted. Shall we in a business like way prevent each other from reverting to cannibalism? Will there ever be a day when, in this pitting of men against machines, the stake won't be further away from us? We want relief. We say to the machine maker and the machine owner, we must have more leisure time—to relax—rest—ease.

In the Glass Works. Mr. Hayes said in part:

To find a man of fifty-five in the glass-blowers' trade, is an exception. And a glass-blower does not retire because they have a competency. What then? His children go to the factory where he himself started in at 8, or 9, or 10, or 11 years of age, sapped of the childhood that would have given him more enduring vigor and robbed of the schooling that would have taught him to care for his health—all to get bottles cheap. Prohibition of child labor and reduction of hours, then, are our goals. There is no organization in better accord with their employers than the glass blowers. But wage scales don't settle all questions. Our union has spent more money in the last

ten years to increase the age at which boys shall go to work than to increase wages, or reduce hours. On one occasion we stood for the abolition of the Sunday night shift, so as to get the boys off, rather than take a raise in wages; and we've held that our men are responsible for the moral status of the boys with whom they work.

Trade Agreements.

Dr. Samuel McCune Lindsay, who succeeds Dr.

Rowe as president of the academy, presided at the evening session which discussed the settlement of industrial conflicts with special reference to the trade agreement. John Graham Brooks called the trade agreements and the work carried on under them in fifteen great industries which he has specially studied, the greatest conservative educational force in the country—greater than the churches, greater than the universities, in training employes and men to work together. If the trade union is here as a tenacious fact in industrial life, we must go on in guerilla warfare, he said, or have trade agreements, as in England, where for sixty years they have been one of the greatest forces for stability. In the industries which he has studied in this country, Mr. Brooks found that the trade agreement had tended—

1. To bring the best union men to the front—to be rid of the tonguey man.
2. To pare the walking delegate of his less desirable faculties.
3. To prevent sympathetic strikes.
4. To cure jurisdictional fights.
5. To teach the men the technical problems of their industries.
6. To get over the clumsiness of arbitration.

Samuel B. Donnelly, secretary of the General Arbitration Board of the New York Building Trades, described the development of the trade agreement in that line of work, and George H. Ellis of Boston, president of the United Typothetae of America, and William B. Prescott of Baltimore, ex-president of the International Typographical Union, discussed it with more or less reference to the present strike situation in the job printing trade. A. Beverly Smith of New York, secretary of the Lithographers' Association, urged that the trade agreement is unsatisfactory in that it does not contain within

itself the machinery for its enforcement on the individual units comprising it. He advocated a system of mutual government within the trade under a joint commission. If this commission fails to agree, the question goes to a board of arbitration of three members whose decisions are final. Among the lithographers there has never yet been a trade decision re-opened by either party.

Industrial Opportunity for the Negro.

The Saturday afternoon session was on the industrial condition of the Negro in the north which afforded opportunity for papers by Prof. Kelly Miller, of Howard University; Mary White Ovington, fellow of the Greenwich House Committee on Social Investigations, New York; R. R. Wright, Jr., of Philadelphia, Hugh M. Browne, principal of the Institute for Colored Youth at Cheyney, Pa., Wm. L. Bulkley, principal of Public School No. 80, New York City. Prof. Carl Kelsey presided. Those who read the special Negro number of this magazine issued last fall, know of the needs, of the lack of opportunity, of the injustice, and of the advances which characterize the conditions under which an increasing Negro population is living in the northern cities. These things were brought out forcibly by the speakers.

The Condition of Working Women.

At the closing session Saturday evening, Witherspoon Hall was crowded with an audience of fifteen hundred women and men, the women being apparently in about the same ratio to the men in the audience as on the program, a ratio of four to one.

Man's part in the discussion of Women in Industry was confined to introductory remarks—introductory to the evening and to the speakers. President Rowe, in opening the session, presented the chairman, Mr. Edward A. Filene, of Boston, whom he described as "an exponent of industrial co-operation in its best form, between employer and employed." Mr. Filene's address was a survey of the field now occupied by wage-earning women, touching on the difficulties and the

main hope for improvement in each of the three most important groups of work, the factory, the store, and domestic service. In general, Mr. Filene thinks that most of the difficulties arise from the unskilled character of the labor, but that much of what is now unskilled labor can be transferred to the skilled class by proper training, with advantage both to employer and employed. This must be brought about by a modification of our educational methods, and by efforts on the part of employers. He suggested most clearly the disadvantages in domestic service by an account of a well-meant effort which he witnessed to secure recruits for it from among salesgirls. The admittedly better pay and superior healthfulness of the work counted for nothing against the loss of independence, the difference in social position, the long, uncertain hours, and the isolation which it entails. One positive advantage of shopwork, not so often mentioned as these disadvantages on the other side, was expressed by a girl who said that "in a shop you see more life; you see more well-dressed ladies and can copy their clothes and the way they talk." Mr. Filene closed his address by a prescription for making a poet which shows more forcibly than anything else could, his faith that the evils of our modern industrial system are only incidental, not inherent, and his hope that it will eventually develop into a cultural agency. "Buy a piece of land," he says, "build a factory; make conditions just, and then more just, and still more just; and finally one of the sons of one of the workers will be a poet."

Miss Richardson, author of *The Long Day*, spoke with conviction of the disadvantage at which women find themselves in the struggle for economic equality with men. This disadvantage, Miss Richardson feels, is permanent and inevitable, arising from physiological and temperamental differences between the sexes. It costs a girl more to keep well and to live decently than it does a man, and she shows a lower average of fitness for sustained effort. Miss Richardson does

not expect the trade union movement among women to be successful; she seems to think that whatever protection working women are to have, will come from paternal legislation. Nor does she think that there is danger that the work of the world will be taken from men by women. She pointed out that men, on the contrary, are acknowledged to do woman's work better than women do it, being the best milliners, the best dressmakers, the best hairdressers, and the best cooks; and she thinks, all apparent indications in the way of census statistics to the contrary notwithstanding, that men will continue to do the world's work as they have done it in the past, and that women "are intended for better things."

Lillian D. Wald, head worker of the Henry Street (The Nurses) Settlement, New York, speaking next, registered contrary convictions on most of Miss Richardson's points. She made a plea for the recognition of the many capable, efficient women who have done a man's work; she called attention to the large numbers reported in 1900 as "engaged in gainful occupations;" she pointed out that woman's work formerly done in the home, the sewing, preserving, and other most domestic occupations, have been transferred to the factory; she referred to the proposed federal investigation of women in industry, as an indication of the importance which the subject has assumed. Miss Wald believes that protective legislation, to prohibit women from working in certain dangerous trades, from working at night or too long hours in any occupation, and for a certain period before and after childbirth, is necessary, and more of it than we have yet enacted: but she believes that further improvement of conditions, in the way of wages, for example, can only be brought about by the organization of the women themselves in trade unions, in which direction most encouraging progress has already been made; and she ended by appealing to the public to support women workers in every possible way in their attempts to bring about effective organization.

What the woman who spends can do to better the condition of the woman who works was discussed by Mrs. Frederick Nathan, president of the New York Consumers' League. She said in substance:

We do not buy slaves, but we seem to think we buy the entire time of our servants; we do not buy children, but we buy the products of their work; we are not intelligent consumers as long as we consume our children; we do not buy stolen goods, but we buy goods made in time stolen from poor working girls; we do not buy poisons to assassinate our neighbors, but we do buy wall papers, matches, and other things which poison their producers; we do not torture animals directly, but we wear aigrettes, and we eat beef from cattle tortured for hours in freight cars; we order our Easter hats at the last moment and leave our Christmas shopping until the week before Christmas and we patronize shops in which we know the girls are not fairly treated. We do all these things, thoughtlessly, and then wonder what we can do to remedy conditions.

The women who spend are in a great measure responsible for some of the existing abuses and evil conditions surrounding the women who work. If the women who spend would demand that their garments,

their household furnishings and their food supplies be made under wholesome conditions—wholesome for both the producer and the consumer—and if they made that demand sufficiently strong and with united pressure, then merchants would insist upon manufacturers complying with this demand of their customers, and manufacturers would be forced to comply, in order to find a market for their wares.

It had been announced early in the evening that Mrs. J. G. Phelps Stokes had been delayed en route from Tuskegee, but was expected before the evening should be over. At the end of the program she had not arrived and the audience adjourned to the reception room without having heard her paper. A little later, however, she reached the building and the guests who were still there gathered and listened to her paper on "The Status of the Working Woman." The most prominent note was that the working woman is the victim of injustice and that she feels it. What she wants, Mrs. Stokes says, "is not welfare work, and not charity, but justice—fair hours of labor and fair pay for its product."

The Children

Dedicated to the New York Child Labor Committee

*"Jesus called a little child unto him, and said,
* * * Whoso shall offend one of these little
ones, * * * it were better for him that a mill-
stone were hanged about his neck, and he were
drowned in the depth of the sea."
"For in Heaven, their angels do always behold
the face of my Father."*

"Call the roll of my servants,"
(The Master speaks to men).

"Those to whom I have given
Charge of the wards of Heaven.
I would seek My own again.
The spotless souls in bodies fair,
(Buds that should bloom to roses rare),
I trusted to your culturing care;
Show Me My own again.
Mothers, who tender flesh conceived,
Fathers, who deathless souls received,
What has your loving care achieved?
Render My own again."

"Must we call them forth from the shop,
the mine,
The little children, both ours, and Thine?
Ah, they are warped from Love's design

By fate malign!

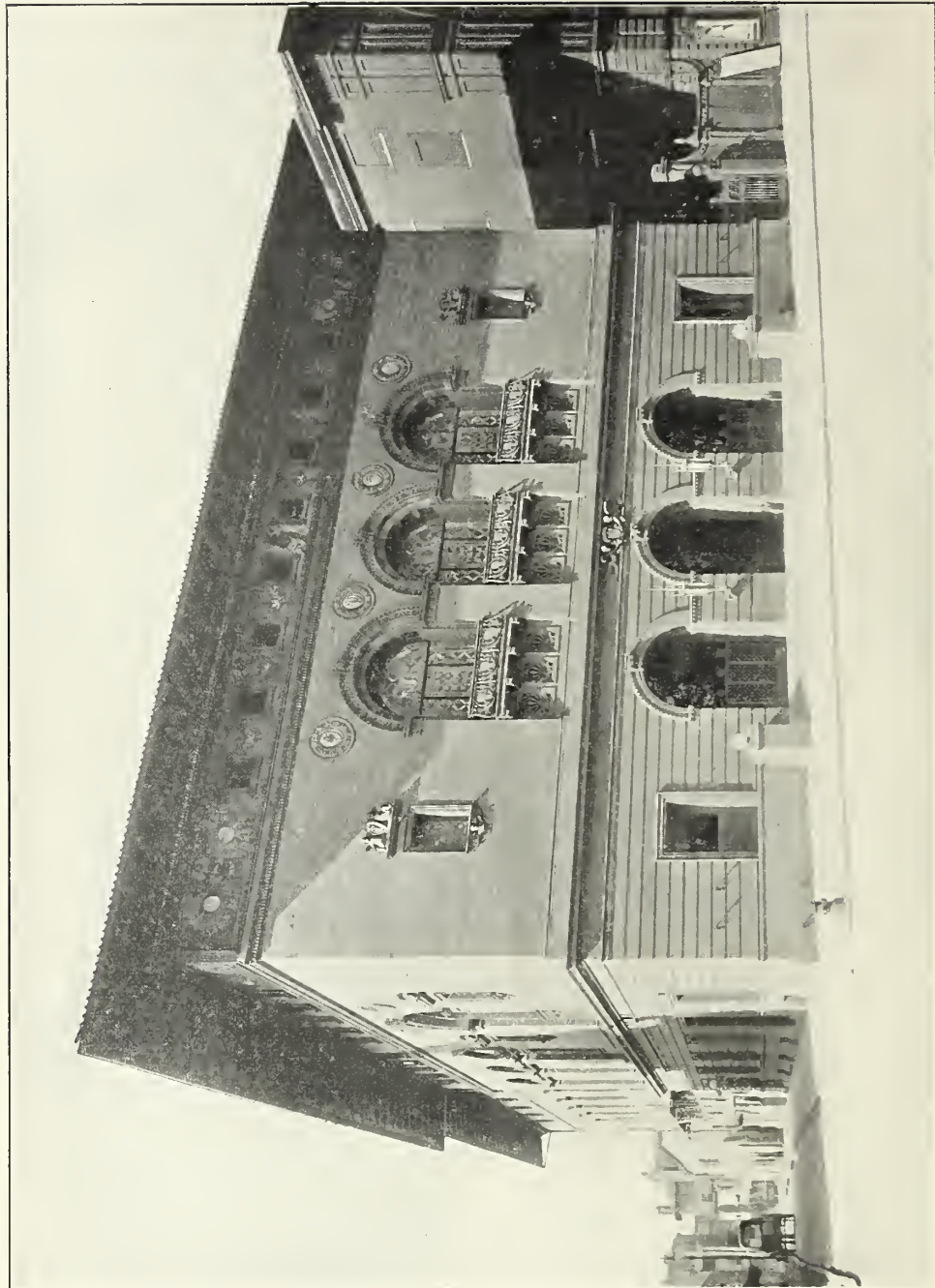
Love may struggle, but want commands;
Law may threaten, but greed demands;
We have given Thy trust into stranger
hands—

"Lo, here Thou hast that is Thine!"

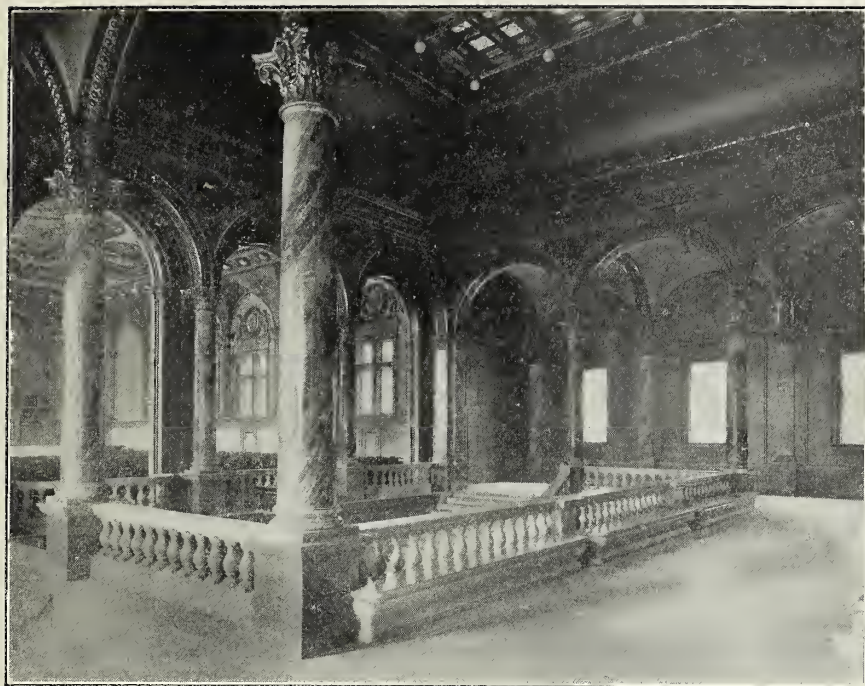
"Bring them forth in the sunlight now,
Here, where all may see
As they look on the great possession, *how*
My own come back to me.
Fashioned in schools of toil, and sin,
Blasted without, and starved within,
Rifled of childhood's sacred share
Of kindly homes, and of God's pure air,
Will those who bought them, will those
who bare,

Here in the front of the angels, dare
With lifted hand by my presence, swear
They bring me my own again?"

J. L. H.



Horticultural Hall, Philadelphia.



Stairway of Horticultural Hall.

The National Conference Headquarters

Those in charge of arrangements for the National Conference of Charities and Correction to be held in Philadelphia, May 9 to 16, whether at work upon the details in Philadelphia or upon the arrangement of the program in many places, are convinced that this is to be the largest conference of all the thirty-three. This fact has been kept in mind in planning for the conference's comfort, and it has been decided to make no one hotel the conference headquarters, but to make Horticultural Hall, which is in the center of the hotel district, both meeting place and headquarters.

Those familiar with conference needs agree that the building is wonderfully well adapted to this purpose. Architecturally it is very beautiful, but better still it is very conveniently arranged, and near the places of interest to strangers. The city covers 129 square miles, but the Academy of Music, where the opening meeting will be held adjoins Horticultural Hall, the Hotel Walton is across the street, the Bellevue-Stratford is one

block away, and the Pennsylvania Railroad station and the public buildings are three blocks.

Entering from Broad street, a wide lower corridor with marble columns corresponding with those shown above the stairway in the picture, will be divided on the left into registration tables, mailing desks, and telephone booths, and on the right will be furnished as a reception room.

On the lower floor beyond this will be offices for the general secretary, the president and the executive committee, and a ladies' retiring and rest room, where maids will be in attendance. This floor also has a small hall with seats for 450, which will be used for section meetings.

The great staircase, leading from the lower to the upper corridor and the large auditorium, will lend itself admirably to floral decoration. May is the month of roses, and the gardens along the Main Line, and in Chestnut Hill, Germantown and other suburbs are expected to keep

Horticultural Hall so well supplied with fresh flowers that it will be worthy of its name.

The main auditorium, where the general sessions and larger section meetings will be held, seats 1200. The upper corridor will be another pleasant place in which to meet one's friends.

Beyond this corridor is the beautiful foyer shown in the picture, which will serve as a hall for section meetings of good size.

Scattered about the building are several small offices. These and the foyer balcony, and the corners of the upper corridor, perhaps, can be used as small headquarters for each important section of the conference, where literature may be kept, where the section chairman may have a small desk, and where it may be possible for the chairman to arrange private interviews between someone with a question and someone with a possible answer.

This suggested use for section head-

quarters should be especially useful at a large conference. Many are too timid to bring their small difficulties into a large meeting, and for others, who are not too timid, there is often no time. With some ingenuity on the part of a section chairman, it ought to be possible to arrange many helpful private interviews for those who are seeking practical help, and a number of the more experienced workers in each section might be assigned to the duty of giving such help.

Further suggestions for making Horticultural Hall more useful during conference week are invited. All correspondence, and all inquiries about hotel and boarding house rates, etc., should be addressed to L. Stauffer Oliver, secretary local committee, 1007 Bailey Building, Philadelphia, who will furnish a list of hotels and boarding houses on application. Reservations may be made by addressing the managers of the several hotels, or through the local secretary.

Section Meetings of the Twenty-third National Conference of Charities and Correction, Philadelphia, May 9 to 16

[All morning section meetings are held at 9.30, with the exception of the child labor section, which is at 11 and so designated. The afternoon section meetings are held at 3. The program of the general sessions was published in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS OF March 31.]

Thursday morning, May 10.

CARE OF THE SICK. Room C. *State and Municipal Control of Tuberculosis.* Thomas F. Kane, M.D., Hartford, Conn.

Discussion opened by Mazyck P. Ravel, M. D., assistant medical director Phipps Institute.

CHILDREN. Room B. *General Work for Children. Work for Children Outside of Institutions and Juvenile Court.* William H. Pear, assistant superintendent Children's Aid Society, Boston.

Thursday afternoon, May 10.

NEIGHBORHOOD WORK. Room B. *Prevention of Overcrowding in Smaller Cities. Summary Evictions from Tenements.* Frederic Almy, general secretary Buffalo Charity Organization Society.

DEFECTIVES. Room A. *Need of Special Care and Training.* Lightner Witmer, University of Pennsylvania.

Mrs. Fanny F. Morse, superintendent Industrial School for Girls, Lancaster, Mass.; E. E. Allen, superintendent Institute for Blind, Overbrook, Pa.; A. L. E. Crouter, Mt. Airy, Pa.

Friday morning, May 11.

CARE OF THE SICK. Room C. *Hospitals*

for the Treatment of Contagious Diseases. Charles P. Emerson, M.D., Johns Hopkins University.

The Educational Opportunities of the Visiting Nurse in the Prevention of Disease. Miss Charlotte Aikens, superintendent Methodist Hospital, Des Moines, Ia.

Discussion opened by Miss Annie Damer, Tuberculosis Dispensary, Bellevue Hospital, New York.

CHILDREN. Room B. *The Delinquent Girl.* Vida H. Francis, Philadelphia.

Discussion: *Work of Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.* Benjamin C. Marsh, secretary Pennsylvania Society to Protect Children from Cruelty.

Friday afternoon, May 11.

STATISTICS. Room B. Report of the committee by the chairman, Amos W. Butler, secretary Board of State Charities of Indiana.

State Boards of Charities. David S. Snedden, assistant professor of education Leland Stanford University.

Statistics of institutions. John Koren, special agent, Bureau of the Census.

Saturday morning, May 12.

DEFECTIVES. Room A. *Aims and Possibilities of the New Institution for Feeble-minded and Epileptics.* J. Morehead Murdoch, M. D., superintendent Western Pennsylvania Institution.



Vestibule of Horticultural Hall.

T. C. Fitzsimmons, M.D., commissioner of the Institution; W. M. L. Coplin, M.D., director Public Health and Charities, Philadelphia.

11 A. M.

CHILD LABOR. Room B.

CHARITABLE FINANCE. Room C. *Raising Funds for a Private Charitable Society or Institution.*

Discussion opened by Walter S. Ufford, general secretary Baltimore Federated Charities.

Monday morning, May 14.

NEEDY FAMILIES AND STATISTICS (Joint Session). Room B. *Statistics of Dependent Families*, Lillian Brandt, secretary Committee on Social Research, New York Charity Organization Society.

IMMIGRATION. Room A. *How to Make Our Immigration Laws More Effective*, Broughton Brandenburg.

Monday afternoon, May 14.

TRAINING OF SOCIAL WORKERS. Room B. Report of the committee by the chairman, Jeffrey R. Brackett, Ph.D., director of the School for Social Workers, Boston, Mass.

Discussion on the following topics:
Relation of the University to the School.

What Qualifications for Social Work

Should be Emphasized in the Selection of Students and the Courses of Study?

Correlation Between Class Instruction and Practical Field Work.

Children at Glen Mills, Pa. Description of the House of Refuge. F. H. Nibbecker, superintendent House of Refuge, Glen Mills.

Industrial Training for Boys, James Allison, superintendent House of Refuge, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Tuesday morning, May 15.

CHILDREN. Room B. *Work of Probation Officers for Dependent and Delinquent Children.*

Work of the Probation Officer Preliminary to the Trial, Mrs. Annie Ramsey, senior probation officer, juvenile court, Philadelphia.

Work of the Probation Officer in the Court Room, Lucy Friday, probation officer, Baltimore.

The Probation Work of the Probation Officer. Martha P. Falconer, superintendent Girls' House of Refuge, Philadelphia.

NEEDY FAMILIES. Room C. *Collocution*. Typical cases presented by Walter L. Cosper, Peoria, Ill.

Tuesday afternoon, May 15.

Annual meeting of the federation of day nurseries. Main auditorium. *The*



A SECTION OF CHILDREN'S ROOM, MAIN FLOOR.

Development of the Day Nursery; Its Present and Future, Mrs. Arthur M. Dodge, president Association of Day Nurseries.

Neighborhood Work in Connection with Day Nurseries, Miss Laliah B. Pingree, Boston.

The Influence of the Day Nursery. Mrs. E. C. Dudley, Chicago.

Wednesday morning, May 16.

CHILDREN. Room B. Probation officers' section. Professor Henry W. Thurston, chief probation officer, Chicago.

CHARITABLE FINANCE. Room C. *Making the Budget of a Charitable Activity*, William R. Patterson, University of Iowa.

Wednesday afternoon, May 16.

DEFECTIVES. Room C. *Preventable*

Causes of Defectiveness. Samuel R. Cunningham, M.D., Lafayette, Ind.; W. H. C. Smith, M.D., Godfrey, Ill.; Dora Keen, secretary Public Education Society, Philadelphia; William W. Longstreth, Philadelphia.

NEIGHBORHOOD WORK. Room A. Report of the committee by the chairman, Mary Roberts Smith, South Park Settlement, San Francisco.

Supervision of Playgrounds.

NEEDY FAMILIES. Room B. *A Problem in Co-operation*. H. S. Braucher, Portland, Me.

The Value of Volunteer and Auxiliary Boards to Charity Organization Societies. Eugene T. Lies, Chicago Bureau of Charities.

The Public Library of the District of Columbia as an Organ of Social Advance

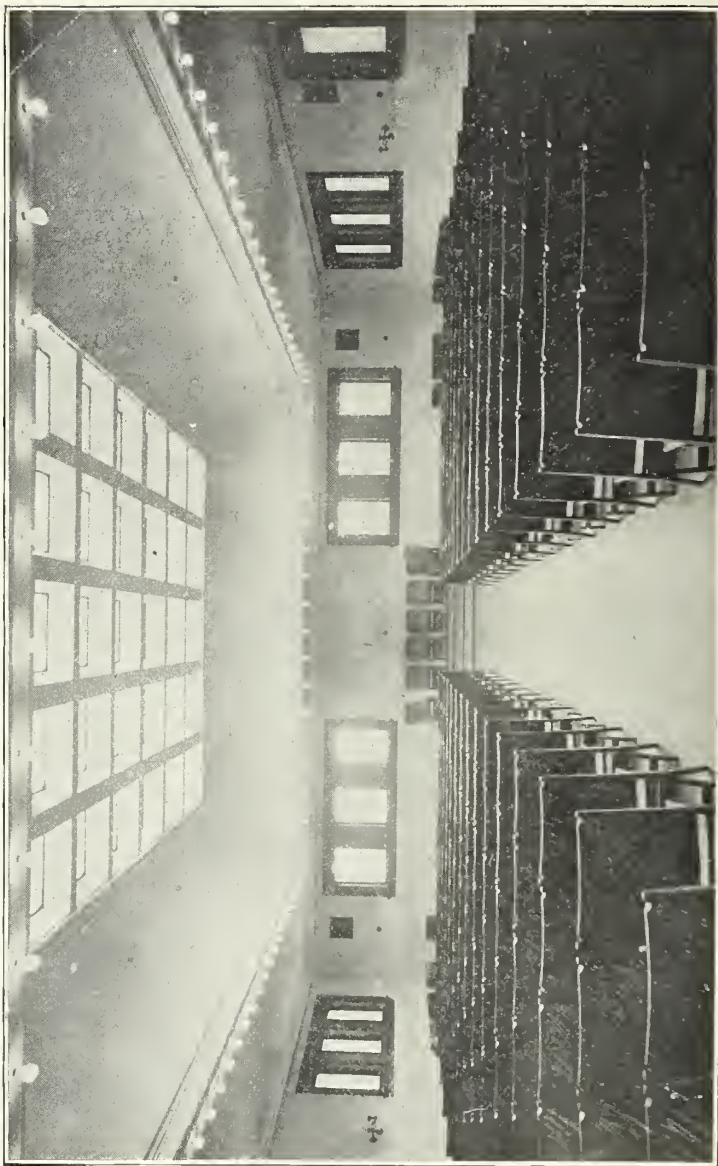
George F. Bowerman
Librarian

I have been asked to tell something of the undeveloped but developing work of the public library of the District of Columbia as an organ of social advance in the National Capital. Students of social problems of course class the public library with the public school, for the keynote of its work is educational. However, as its influence as an educational factor is not limited to school days, though here it effectively supplements formal instruction, but as it offers the means for education and self-help to the whole reading population throughout life, including those who have never spent a day in the school room, it should be regarded as a more universal means of social amelioration than even the public school.

Before taking up specifically the work now being done, as well as that planned or only dreamed of and postponed until more liberal Congressional appropriations make this phase of Washington's development a reality, let me outline briefly the possible future of public library work in general.

Even where there is a compulsory education law (and Congress has not yet granted one to the District of Columbia) not 5% of the school population remain in school beyond the compulsory period

of twelve or fourteen years of age. For the other 95% the upper grammar grades, the high schools and colleges have no existence. Provided only the ability to read is taught, whether in the schools or even by means of street signs and newspapers, then what many people regard as the larger and truer work of popular education can be carried on by libraries. If library facilities are made sufficient for every citizen, if co-operation with schools becomes universal, if library visitors are sufficiently numerous so as to extend a compelling invitation to every child, if branches or stations can be established in every engine house, police station, every large factory, department store, Sunday school, public school, parochial school and social settlement, if so-called home libraries can be distributed widely to minister to groups of families not otherwise reached,—if anywhere and everywhere library facilities are offered which will make access to books easy and the library universal and omnipresent—if these things can only be done, the public school and all other formal instruction will take it for granted that its graduates will carry on their education throughout life by means of the public library.



LECTURE HALL, SECOND FLOOR.

This idea of regarding the public library as the supplement of the public school has been made a part of the law of the United States in the act creating the public library of the District of Columbia, which reads: "A free public library and reading room is hereby established and shall be maintained in the District of Columbia which shall be the property of the said district and a supplement of the public educational system of said district."

Now for a little history of this library. Like most municipal enterprises in Washington dependent on Congress, in which the citizens of the district have no representation, the library is of far more recent origin than the public libraries of most other progressive American municipalities, its support has increased by the slowest increments, and has always come far short of supplying the demands of a reading public rather above the average in culture.

The statistics of libraries have credited the District of Columbia with the largest book supply per capita in the country. But to have so many thousands of books at the Library of Congress and in the department libraries, meant nothing but an aggravation to the average citizen, and furnished an excuse for many years to Congress to be deaf to the appeals for a free public library. At last the special report of the Washington Board of Trade calling for the establishment of a municipal public library, unanimously adopted in 1894, bore fruit in the act of June 3, 1896, creating the public library of the District of Columbia. Two years later the 12,000 volumes belonging to a free library supported by private subscriptions, were turned over, when the new municipal institution received a small appropriation for running expenses. But it was two years more before Congress made any appropriation for books.

Congress was with some difficulty induced to accept, on terms of adequate subsequent support, from Mr. Carnegie (who furnishes the initial incentive to so many municipalities in this field of endeavor), a central library building costing \$375,000. On the occasion of the dedication of this building, which by the

way has served as a model for many other library buildings erected through Mr. Carnegie's gifts, the latter offered \$350,000 or more if needed for the erection of a system of branch buildings. Proposed legislation giving the library trustees power to build these branches gradually, was defeated in Congress, although citizens of several sections of the district had offered not only free sites, but numbers of books. Although the lack of branches cuts off many persons in a widely scattered city from library privileges, yet from the point of view of the best development of an adequate system, the postponement of the building of the branches may well wait until the central library is properly cared for, except that the possible death of Mr. Carnegie might mean the loss of this money for the branch buildings. Of course one defeat from Congress is not accepted as final. Sooner or later the matter will be taken up again, probably with a proposition to authorize building one branch at a time. Although the new building has been occupied for the active work of the library for more than three years and the use of the library has so developed in that period as to require the occupancy of the whole building for its work, it is still true that fully one-third of the space is closed, simply because of lack of force. For example the young folks' department is crowded in a room half the width of the building on the main floor, whereas a handsome basement room the full width of the building was designed for it from the beginning. The spacious newspaper and periodical room on the second floor is not in use, but magazines congest the work of the reference room. Ever since the new building has been occupied the use of the library has each year increased twice or three times as fast as the growth of the staff. This fiscal year's home circulation will reach 450,000, from a stock of less than 80,000 volumes and with a total appropriation of less than \$40,000. Judging from the experience of other municipalities progressive in library development, the home circulation to a population of 323,000 should be not less than a

million, whereas if means such as no municipality has yet had to develop its work were granted, I believe it would be possible to have a home circulation here of from 2,000,000 to 5,000,000.

The Work Under Way.

But to turn from our handicaps and discouragements to the work now being accomplished. This library's first work is that of circulating books among the homes of the people. It of course does reference work, for school children, for study club women, for government clerks, for mechanics and artisans who come evenings and Sundays; but it makes no effort to rival the Library of Congress or the department libraries. In fact it counts itself fortunate that it is relieved of advanced reference work for the scholar, so that it may use its whole energy for the average man and woman. Its reference room, therefore, contains material on almost every subject of popular knowledge, including a much used set of the publications of one of the correspondence schools. This is also duplicated for home use. It has American and foreign magazines, especially many technical periodicals, much used in spite of the fact that Washington is not generally considered a manufacturing city.

The library building was unfortunately built with restricted space for the displaying of books on open shelves. When Congress gives sufficient appropriations it is hoped to use the largest and best lighted room in the building for the purpose of offering direct access to the cream of the entire library. The limited space now available is used to the best advantage for displaying in succession books on various subjects. Still further to facilitate the use of books, to relieve the necessity of using the card catalogue on the part of the uninitiated or timid, an information desk has been established near the main entrance. This is placed in charge of a tactful and intelligent woman who acts as hostess and guide to all and especially to first visitors to the library. Does the visitor not know how to use the card catalogue? The reader's advisor will teach him or even look up the required book and make out the call slips. Is the reader hazy about the subject

wanted? The advisor makes a shrewd guess. Does he want just "something to read" for himself or another? The advisor exercises her judgment concerning the mental, moral or social needs and capacities of the inquirer, with always an effort to improve the quality of the reading wherever possible, to supplant a good book by a better book.

Of course the library circulates fiction in plenty. Fiction is the dominant form of literary expression to-day; it has the most universal appeal; it supplies education in kindness, gentleness, good manners; it teaches history and geography, ethics and aesthetics, sociology and religion. It is read with avidity, whereas the solid book taken from the library no doubt often lies idle and unread until it is time to bring it back. It affords rest and refreshment to the overdriven men of to-day. Therefore few public libraries apologize for the fact that considerably more than 50% of their circulation is fiction. To be sure it must be good fiction, excluding machine made sensations as far as possible, but on the other hand not confining the books offered to such writers as Mrs. Ward, Mr. James and Mrs. Wharton—books whose appeal is chiefly to readers having considerable cultivation.

Although such a large part of the circulation is fiction, yet fully 80% of the bookstock is composed of works other than fiction. As has already been hinted, Washington readers have good taste in reading. The demand for the best in history, biography, travel, essays and art history is large. Duplication is therefore not confined to fiction, but applies also to other classes, often even including books on technical subjects such as electricity, building construction and stenography. Still further to stimulate the use of books other than fiction the library has compiled for free distribution, selected and annotated lists on such subjects as birds, gardening, interesting biographies, summer travel and has in preparation lists on printing (one of Washington's most important industries), health and hygiene and the betterment of municipal conditions. The library also distributes quantities of publishers' lists, advertising groups of books in the

library. Every week a list of the most important new books added is published in the local newspapers. To these lists are often added lists on special seasons and subjects; for example at the beginning of Lent there was published a list of books for Lenten reading, prepared by the Protestant Episcopal Bishop of Washington and one by a professor in the Roman Catholic Georgetown University.

**Children's
Room, Lecture
Hall and
Study Room.**

One of the most important phases of our work is that of the children's room.

This is in charge of a young woman who is a college graduate and who has also taken the course at the Training School for Children's Librarians at the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh. No book is added to the children's collection until it has been carefully read by her in order to decide upon its suitability. The hoards of children who come are having their tastes formed in accordance with the best standards. Teachers and parents constantly consult the children's librarian as to the best reading for their children. The story hour and colored picture books for the youngest children, and the reading circle for those older, bulletin boards with pictures and lists of books about the pictures, are all used as adjuncts of this work. The local Audubon Society also has close relations with the library, meets regularly in the lecture hall and furnishes lectures for Saturday morning talks to young folks on birds. Through one of its experts in the Department of Agriculture, it supplies information each spring concerning bird migrations, by means of which a bulletin board showing colored pictures of bird arrivals is kept up to date.

The lecture hall proves a valuable addition to the regular work of the library. Thus far the library has conducted no lectures of its own, except those in co-operation with the Audubon Society. However, the hall during the winter months is occasionally used as many as five evenings a week, by the regular weekly free lectures given under the Board of Education and by numerous organizations which conduct lectures of popular interest and educational tendency, or hold meetings in support of some

measure of reform. For example, the Associated Charities recently arranged for three public meetings, devoted to compulsory education, child labor, and wife desertion and non-support of family. Meetings devoted to religious subjects or partisan politics have been excluded. Lecture auditors of course are usually led to be users of the library. All meetings are free and the public generally is invited.

The library also has a study room, fitted up primarily for staff use, but used by many small organizations who resort to the library collectively to carry on studies with the aid of library books. Another study room has been fitted up especially for the use of the teachers of the district—1,500 in the public schools and 200 or 300 in private schools. The collection of books kept here includes a reference library containing cyclopedias, dictionaries, psychological and pedagogical works and text-books, about twenty educational periodicals regularly on file and the circulating books of the class education taken from the stack and shelved in the room. This room is likewise used by the teachers for committee and club purposes.

**Reaching Out
Among the
People.**

To make the relation of public library and schools still more close, a monthly educational bulletin giving new educational accessions and educational articles in current periodicals is issued by the mimeograph process and sent to all the public and private schools, where it is posted on their bulletin boards. The librarian and the children's librarian also occasionally address schools or classes. A beginning has been made at the work of sending out books to schools in bulk. Thus far this has only extended to the high schools and to a few subjects. The establishment of a complete system by which every school and every school room, especially schools most remote from the library, shall be practically branches for the circulation of books, a plan successful in several other places, is something to be looked forward to. However, by means of the ten book privilege, by which each teacher can secure ten books for school use in addition to

what she needs for her own reading, the library is doing something to introduce the library idea into the minds of teachers and through them to the children, even when they live too far away to come to the library. Recently this teachers' privilege idea has been extended so that any student who regularly requires several books at a time may have them.

Another reason for supplying fiction which does not come up to classic standards is that thus indirectly the library is able to reach the children. It is worth while to bring to the library the woman who wants books by E. P. Roe and Rosa N. Carey—for her own sake. But especially is it important to get her to come and bring her children in order that the library may begin early to influence them, mold their tastes and win them to be life-long library users.

The only active movement in the direction of branches that the library has thus far been able to make is to meet the requests for books that have come from five social settlements, including one colored settlement. To establish these stations involves only the purchase of 200 or 300 books and a few supplies for each. The work of opening them two or three afternoons or evenings a week, and of circulating about 200 or 300 books a month from each, has been entirely done by volunteers, in several cases those volunteers have been overworked and underpaid members of the library's regular staff—such is the spirit of service among librarians. The users of these stations are mostly children, as there is no money to buy adult books and no room to accommodate adult readers.

Besides the calls for the building of the complete system of branches the library has received several requests to establish deposit stations in the various government departments and offices. Department libraries should properly be confined to reference books. The supplying of popular books is the proper work of the public library, and given the

means, such stations could be conducted and would greatly facilitate the access of government clerks to books for themselves and their families.

The hampering financial conditions already so often mentioned have thus far prevented the opening of the library at 8:30 a. m., so that government clerks and business men might return their books on their way to their offices. The library is open, however, from 10 a. m. to 9 p. m. for the return and delivery of books and its reading room is open until 10 p. m. The last Congress also made possible the long sought boon of opening the library on Sundays from 2 to 10 p. m. for reference and registration, but not for home circulation. This is much appreciated by many persons who are too fatigued to come on week day evenings. Such men now come, learn about the library, secure borrowers' privileges and have their wives and children draw books for them.

A recent critic of public libraries has charged that most of them are so conducted that they appeal only to women, children and idlers among men, and has made an appeal for "libraries for men." Of course the use of any library does presuppose at least a certain minimum of leisure from other employment. The critic charged that most libraries had nothing or next to nothing that a wide-awake, up-to-date, work-a-day man wanted. This criticism made in a widely-circulated journal and copied by technical library publications, has been deeply pondered by librarians who have been examining themselves and their libraries to see whether the criticism is just. I believe that the workings of this library as set forth in this account, will show that it has sufficient breadth of appeal, sufficiently extended hours of opening, sufficient scope in its collection both for circulation and reference so that the motto carved on the building—"a university for the people" is true, so that it is indeed a library for mankind.

Twenty-fifth Anniversary of Tuskegee

With a record of twenty-five years of practical service to the Negroes of the South, Tuskegee Institute celebrated its silver jubilee on April 4. A quarter of a century ago in Tuskegee, Ala., housed in one small, rough building, the institute was started. Thirty students comprised the enrolment with a teaching staff of proportionate size.

On Wednesday, April 4, Booker T. Washington, its founder, and principal, together with William H. Taft, Secretary of War, President Eliot of Harvard University, and Robert C. Ogden spoke of the possibilities of the Institute with its enrolment of 1,400 students and 6,000 men and women graduates. From one building in 1881, Tuskegee has become a modern industrial institute. A community of about 2,200 people has sprung up around the school. Electric lighting plants and water works are facts—not theories—and all have been built by hands trained at the institute. With such progress under adverse conditions, the twenty-fifth birthday may well be termed a jubilee.

In opening the anniversary exercises Mr. Washington said:

And Jesus said, I will make you fishers of men.

In the spirit of these words, the foundation of this institution was laid in 1881, through a gift from the State of Alabama. For twenty-five years then the Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute has been fishing for men. What of it, and with what results? In our quest we have used land, houses, barns, henneries, shops, laundries, kitchens, classrooms, the Bible, arithmetic, the saw, the trowel, the plough, and money—all these and more, we have used in our efforts to fish for men.

Primarily, I believe that my race has found itself, so far as its permanent location is concerned. When this institution began its mission there was uncertainty, lack of faith, halting, and speculation as to our permanent abiding place. As to what degree the influence of the Tuskegee Institute has contributed to this, I will venture no assertion, except to state that, so far as I can interpret the present ambitions and the activities of my people, the main body of the race has decided to remain permanently in the heart of the South in or near what is known as the black belt.

In speaking of the new responsibilities of the Negro and his privileges as a citizen, Mr. Washington continued:

The negro race in this country has entered upon a wholly new period—a period in which emphasis is being placed on a side of life not covered in any of the previous experiences of my people. I mean the era of free, independent, and intelligent economic and industrial development, accompanied with a growing sense of the worth and value of their own qualities and a desire to make the most of them under God, for their own good and the welfare of the world. Having to some extent become conscious of the great task imposed on them as a people, they are seeking to lay the foundation deep in the essentials of life. But in this task they often meet many and sometimes needless obstacles.

If this country is to continue to be a republic its task will never be complete as long as seven or eight millions of its people are in a large degree regarded as aliens and are without voice and interest in the welfare of the government. Such a course will not merely inflict great injustice upon these millions of people, but the nation will pay the price of finding the genius and form of its government changed, not perhaps in name, but certainly in reality, and because of this the world will say that free government is a failure.

As I conceive it, a part of the mission of this school is expressed in the purpose and determination to assist the race in laying such a gradual and permanent foundation in right living, through the accumulation of property, industry, thrift, skill, education of all character, moral and religious habits, and all that which means our usefulness to the community in which we abide, that, naturally, logically, sympathetically, we shall make ourselves grow into the full and rightful enjoyment and intelligent use of the privileges and rewards of citizenship.

Any less ambition would be unworthy of us, unworthy of you. Any less ambition would make us perpetual drags, instead of potential forces for good.

President Eliot spoke on *What Uplifts a Race and What Holds It Down*. He said that four essential conditions were required to lift any race from barbarism into civilization: (1) Daily productive work in freedom. Work of this character he contended would implant new desires and give new means for gratifying those desires. (2) Pure family life; (3) universal education, and (4) respect for law. In speaking of the necessity for education President Eliot said in part:

In this agency for lifting up a race the American people as a whole seems to have more confidence than in any other; yet education must certainly be placed third in the list of civilizing forces. Habitual productive labor and family life must precede it; and the education of children cannot prevent the decline of any people whose habit of labor or family life has been impaired. The keen desire for education is a good measure of the capacity of any people to rise. A keen desire with imperfect means will accomplish vastly more than a faint desire with much better means. The intelligence of a population may also be fairly estimated by their willingness to spend money on the education of the children, just as the intelligence of a father and mother may be measured by the pains they take to procure education for their children. As a rule, the larger the proportion of the public revenue devoted to education, the more intelligent the population which orders this expenditure. * * *

Through the beneficent method of private endowment, aided by national and State grants, two conspicuous institutions for promoting the industrial efficiency and the moral elevation of the colored people of the South have been successfully established and maintained—one at Hampton, the other at Tuskegee; but the method of private endowment which has been so fruitful in the Northern States is too slow to meet the present exigencies of the Southern States; indeed it has proved too slow to meet the exigencies of the Western States. There should be at least one such institution as Tuskegee in each of the Southern States; and, in my judgment, the national government, through whose action slavery was abolished, should take a hand in the establishment of these new Tuskegees. The land grant colleges in the Southern States are now used only for whites. Wherever throughout the country there are communities of colored people so populous that separate schools must be maintained for them, the national government should give aid to the States in founding and maintaining separate industrial and normal schools, competent to send out an adequate number of trained farmers, mechanics, miners, teachers, and nurses. The government which can afford to spend eight millions of dollars on one battleship and to build a fleet of these short-lived monsters, and whose annual expenditure is more than a billion dollars, ought to be able and eager to help the Southern States to lift up not only the black race, on which it forced a sudden liberty, but the white race too, which had long suffered deeply from the concomitant evils of African slavery. The national bounty for education through and in the several States now goes almost completely to one race; it ought to go to both races. The Southern States need have no more hesitation in accepting this new national bounty than they had in accepting the bounty in 1862 and its subsequent

enlargements. The prompt improvement of education at the South is a high national interest, quite as broad and comprehensive as the national interest in a uniform quarantine, or in interstate commerce, or in forestry or irrigation.

Secretary Taft told of the progress of the Negro since emancipation. He said:

" * * * With deference to those who have looked more into the question, and who differ on this point from what I am about to say, it seems to me that instead of affording ground for discouragement in the solution of the so-called negro problem, a review of the history of this race since the war justifies the statement that great progress has been made. Not only has there been a movement by the negro race itself along similar educational, industrial, and economic lines, but there is much encouragement in the attitude now taken by the leading men of the South, who see the difficulties of the problem with great clearness, and welcome and sympathize with the efforts of Mr. Washington in what he is doing for his race. The white men who can do the most good for the negro, who can aid him in his toilsome march to better material and intellectual conditions, are the Southern white men, who are his neighbors. It is one of the encouraging signs of the time that there is growing up in the South a body of leading white men who feel that the future of the negro race affects the future of the South, and that both self-interest and humanity require them to lend all the aid they can to this people in the throes of a burdensome effort.

Of course there is much to discourage in the bewildered and helpless condition of so many ignorant negroes who, knowing no useful trade but agriculture, are attracted to Southern cities and find there no occupation to which they are adapted. Equally discouraging in another way is the state of a bright young colored man who finds himself with merely a literary education with no professional opportunity, and with an inability to overcome his repugnance to what he allows himself to believe is the humiliation of manual labor.

Robert C. Ogden, president of the board of trustees of Tuskegee Institute, spoke on the significance of the celebration. He said that the institute was "the unmatched example of the possibilities of an institution entirely controlled in its diversified academic and industrial curriculum, productive industries, executive organization, and business affairs by a faculty and corps of managers composed of men and women of African descent."

An Open Letter

From the New York Charity Organization Society to the Police Commissioner in
Regard to Abolition of the Mendicancy Detail.

March 28, 1906.

HON. THEODORE A. BINGHAM,
Commissioner of Police,
300 Mulberry Street, City.

DEAR SIR:

We learn from your letter of March 15, to Mr. Bannard, that it is your decision not to continue, at least for the present, the special Mendicancy detail. While we have no disposition to press further the considerations which were set forth at length in our letter of February 13, 1906, it has seemed to us appropriate to recapitulate briefly the relations which have existed between this society and the department, and to explain what our position is in view of your decision to abolish the Mendicancy detail.

From the beginning this society has given special attention to this subject both on the charitable side, in caring for unfortunate individuals who have no alternatives except to beg or to suffer for the necessities of life, and in the interest of the general public, to protect the community from being over-run with mendicants of the criminal class. In pursuance of these objects we have employed our own special agents, together with the necessary office assistance, entirely at our own expense, no appropriation for this purpose having ever been made by the city or requested by the society. In the earlier years our agents employed for this purpose were appointed special officers, and they themselves made arrests whenever it was not convenient to call upon the service of uniformed police officers.

Luring Mayor Strong's administration a plan was suggested by us to the police department for the detail of two police officers for each Magistrate's court district, who should work exclusively at the suppressing of street begging, reporting to and being responsible to the sergeant of the court squad. The society under this plan undertook to assist these special officers in any way possible by reporting particular cases, by furnishing information when called upon to do so in regard to particular mendicants. For a short time this plan worked fairly well, but on account of the need for officers for other special purposes the detail was seriously interfered with, and finally became so far disintegrated that only four officers were left in the seven courts, and the work which these officers did was entirely ineffective.

When it became clear that this plan had broken down through the lack of persistence and effective supervision within the department, this society proposed to the department that the four police officers who were supposed to be giving their time to the suppression of mendicancy should work in direct co-operation with our Mendicancy De-

partment. This recommendation was adopted and went into effect on June 4, 1902. It is fair to say that during the time the Vagrancy Squad, as it was called, was managed from the courts it succeeded to some extent in restraining professional begging in New York, but that it had accomplished practically nothing toward the real elimination of mendicancy. In the three years and a half since the beginning of this closer co-operation of the department with this society, the situation has been absolutely different.

With the aid of the police officers, subsequently increased to seven in number, this society has been pursuing energetically and successfully a policy the object of which was to make street begging impossible, but which did not exclude humane and charitable assistance to individuals who are not professionals or, who having been professional mendicants, are desirous of giving up that manner of life entirely and earning their own living. By warning first offenders, by keeping a personal record of all who are either warned or arrested, by centralizing this information for the entire city in a single bureau of records, by gaining the confidence of magistrates, by preventing the premature discharge of vagrants before the expiration of their term, by lending a helping hand to discharged prisoners, by co-operation with similar societies and police departments in other cities, by educating public sentiment through the newspapers and otherwise to appreciate the real character of those who are prosecuted and convicted, and in other ways, too numerous to set forth at length, we have worked steadily toward the end of a radical and complete solution of this particular problem. Police officers have been used for police work, the other supplementary but essential parts of the work have been done by employees of the society.

The Mendicancy detail, therefore, has been in no sense a contribution by the city to the society but, on the contrary, the plan of co-operation has involved a very considerable and continuous expenditure for which the society has had to find funds from private contributions. Except in the few instances in which we have ourselves asked for a warning in court or for a suspended sentence, practically all who have been arrested and prosecuted on our complaint, through the officers of the Mendicancy detail, have been convicted, sentenced to six months' term, and have served their sentence. In the fifteen months ending September 30, 1905, there were, as we have already written you, 1863 such arrests, while the entire police force outside the Mendicancy detail were reported to have arrested only 565 persons on a charge of vagrancy.

In the month of January of this year there were 195 arrests by the officers of the Mendicancy detail. The Mendicancy detail was abolished on February 5. In the remainder of that month, a period of twenty-four days, there were reported to have been made only thirty arrests by the police officers, and there is already a very considerable increase of street begging in many neighborhoods.

The purpose of this letter is not to reopen the question which you have decided, but to ask whether by some method consistent with the plans which you have formed for the department, you will not be able to deal with this subject in such a way as to prevent the increase of begging and the return to the city of a class of vicious and depraved criminals who have been either driven out of it or repeatedly imprisoned under the plan which has been in force. We write, not in the interests of the society, but in the interests of the city. It is no kindness even to the mendicants themselves to

encourage the life of thieving, swindling, idleness and begging to which they are accustomed. We are ready to co-operate with you to the utmost extent of our ability on any effective plan which you may devise, and to place freely at your disposal the experience which we have gained in the past twenty years in dealing with this subject.

Assuring you that we have no other desire in this matter than the success of your administration and the good of the community, I remain

Respectfully yours,

FREDERIC B. JENNINGS,

Chairman of the Mendicancy Committee.

Committee on Mendicancy:

FREDERIC B. JENNINGS, Chairman,
OTTO T. BANNARD,
ROBERT W. DE FOREST,
EDGAR J. LEVEY,
ROBERT GRIER MONROE.

Employment Exchange.

Address all communications to Editor Employment Exchange Department of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, Room 905, 156 Fifth Avenue. Kindly enclose postage if a reply is desired.

YOUNG WOMAN of experience in settlement work, especially with girls' clubs, wishes non-resident position in settlement in New York City.

WANTED - Young woman, graduate in Domestic Science, as resident teacher in settlement. Personal interview in New York necessary.

WANTED - Young woman with experience in settlement, or training in school for social workers, as assistant in settlement in large city. Engagement to begin in fall.

WANTED - Young woman of some training or experience in C. O. S. work to take charge of society in a small city in Massachusetts. Engagement to begin at once.

WANTED - Man of experience to direct the summer playground of a settlement in large city. Success in managing boys essential.

WANTED - Woman as boarder in a settlement. One evening's assistance a week required.

WANTED - Correspondence with college students who wish summer work in settlements, or Fresh Air work.

THE VILLAGE BELLES.

"The Village Belles" of Greenwich Settlement House beg to announce a Fancy Dress Affair to be held on the evenings of May 25th and 26th from 7 to 10 o'clock, at 26 Jones Street, the proceeds to be used for their Summer Vacation Outing.

Donations of fancy and plain articles, dolls, candy, cake and flowers (Plants preferably) will be most gratefully received. Kindly send same care of Miss Mina W. de Hart, 26 Jones Street, on or before dates of Sale.

Admission 10 cents.

Children under 14, 3 cents, admitted with parents only.

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A Housing Commission for Washington. It is understood that James B. Reynolds, the President's special commissioner appointed to give expert advice in framing a municipal program for the national capital, is about to submit a partial report dealing comprehensively with the problem of housing. Later reports will deal with other aspects of municipal advance and reform.

It is not unreasonable to hope that Mr. Reynolds will recommend in the present preliminary report the appointment of a commission to make a thorough study of the housing problem. It is understood that this course has been strongly urged by many of those who have been hardest at work in Washington, and certainly the experience of New York indicates that this is not only the best way to secure any necessary legislation, but also to insure its stability against subsequent attacks.

The commissioners of the District of Columbia have further powers of legislation in this direction than they have as yet exercised. They may legislate on any subject relating to the public health, safety, and quiet. It is, however, considered desirable to secure the passage of the pending measure relating to the condemnation of insanitary tenements. If this act is passed it may prove that no very extensive legislation by Congress is necessary, but that whatever conclusions are reached by a housing commission, in case one should be appointed, can be carried into effect by the commissioners and the municipal departments.

The Milan Conference. An official bulletin announces the subjects to be considered at the *Iv Congresso Internazionale dell' Assistenza Pubblica e Privata*. to be held at Milan, Italy, May 23-27. They are as follows:

1. The necessity of an international agreement for assistance to foreigners; proposed by the committee of the National Italian Congresses, constituted in Bologna, and by Emilio Robert of Belgium.

2. Professional education of volunteer charity workers; proposed by Dr. Münsterberg of Berlin.

3. Institutions whose object it is to protect and assist the young girl and isolated woman; proposed by Ferdinand Dreyfus of Paris.

4. Measures taken or about to be taken in different countries to reduce child mortality; proposed by Paul Strauss, senator of Paris.

5. With what systems and within what limits can provident and insurance associations be made to substitute and complete the functions of public charitable institutions, with the concurrence of such institutions.

To the congress will be presented a statistical record of charitable work during a period of about half a century, the statement prepared under the direction of Charles S. Loch of London.

The organization of the congress is in charge of a commission nominated by the mayor of Milan. That commission has delegated its functions to an executive committee of fifteen members, whose duty it is to plan the work of the congress and attend to the publication of the result thereof.

At the suggestion of Mrs. Roger Wolcott and D. D. C. Gilman an international committee from America was organized with Robert W. de Forest as president and C. L. Brace as secretary. The committee has invited several Americans to represent this country at the congress and a number of interesting

papers have been prepared and sent to Milan. Miss Emma Brace, a director of the Society for the Protection of Italian Immigrants, has sent a paper for section one of the program, Prof. Graham Taylor on the professional education of charity workers, Mr. Brace on the general subject of child saving. Dr. Jeffrey R. Brackett has prepared a paper on the development of the movement for charity organization, and Prof. Charles R. Henderson on provident and insurance associations, under the terms of section five of the congress.

**An American
Delegate—
Once a Children's
Aid Ward.**

It is an interesting incident that the New York Children's Aid Society is to be represented at the congress by a former ward, Francis L. Frugone of New York, editor and part owner of one of the most influential Italian daily newspapers. He came to this country about thirty years ago from the neighborhood of Milan. The boy was ignorant of the English language, without friends or money and was in a most dependent condition of mind when found by an agent of the Children's Aid Society. He became a pupil of the Italian evening industrial school of that society and was given a job in the printing office of the school. He has become a leader among the Italians and was a congressional candidate of the republican party at the last election. He wishes to show the people of Italy what is done for their compatriots in New York.

In the list of contributors from Europe are many names which give assurance that the congress will be an important one. The executive committee has prepared an official tour of Italy in order that members may visit some of the principal Italian charities, the tour to include Florence, Rome, Naples, Messina and Taormina, returning by Palermo, Rome, Siena and Pisa. Important reductions of the railroad fares, in some cases as much as fifty per cent., have been obtained for members of the congress. All who are interested are invited to become members, the fee being twenty francs, which may be sent to the executive committee, Palazzo Comunale, Milan, Italy.

**One Step—
Will There
Be Others?**

The child labor law just enacted in Iowa marks a step in the right direction.

The law provides against the employment of children under fourteen years of age and requires a record to be kept at places of employment of all under sixteen years. The hours of labor for minors under sixteen are restricted to ten a day while their labor at night is forbidden. A most important feature of the law is the authority given the commissioner of labor and his deputies to make inspections and enforce the provisions of the act. The bill as originally drafted by the Iowa child labor committee and the national child labor committee would have placed Iowa in the front rank among the states affording protection to their children. Unfortunately, however, many of the best features were stricken from the bill in its journey through the legislature and the new law fails to require any proof of the age of children employed (although imposing heavy penalties for misrepresentation) or any educational qualifications. The most that can be said for this piece of legislation is that it lays the foundation for future efforts and that the agitation has been of inestimable benefit to the people of the state and to the entire middle west.

**The Playground
Association
of America.**

Delegates from eight cities representing fifteen different organizations met in Washington on April 12-14, and organized the Playground Association of America.

The following officers were elected:

Honorary President, Theodore Roosevelt.
Honorary Vice-President, Jacob A. Riis, of New York.

President, Dr. Luther T. Gulick, director of physical education in the public schools of New York.

Vice Presidents, Joseph Lee of Boston, and Miss Jane Addams of Hull House, Chicago.

Secretary, Dr. Henry S. Curtis, supervisor of playgrounds in Washington.

Chairman of executive committee, Seth T. Stewart, division superintendent of public schools, New York.

The purposes of the organization are to make a careful scientific study of the games and play of children and youths of both sexes and to present the same in a journal which is to be pub-

lished by the association; to hold an annual meeting for the purpose of training the directors of playgrounds and to promote the interests of play and playgrounds not only in cities, but also in the rural communities. The association hopes to establish a museum where all literature bearing upon the subject, and models of playgrounds and apparatus may be exhibited.

In order to be of help to mothers and school teachers as well as to those actively employed in the direction of play in recreation centers, vacation schools and playgrounds, the annual dues were placed at \$1.00 a year which will include the subscription to the journal above mentioned.

The members of the conference were received by President Roosevelt, who upon being told the objects and purposes of the association, expressed cordial approval and his belief that playgrounds under proper direction are an absolute necessity under modern city conditions. At the same time he urged that the claim of the child to play his own games should be recognized and that the mistake of too much supervision and restriction should not be made.

The interest of the community in all things which pertain to playgrounds was shown by the fact that the newspapers of Washington not only gave great prominence to the proceedings of the meetings, but also placed the leading facts concerning the organization upon their bulletin boards.

The conference was tended a banquet by the playground committee of Washington at which Henry B. Macfarland, president of the Commissioners of the District of Columbia, presided. The next meeting of the association will be held in Chicago in the summer or fall of 1907 at which time there will be a great festival of play such as is held in many continental cities.

A New Course in Social Work. A preliminary six weeks' course in social work, to extend from April 16 to June 1, has been organized at the University of Pennsylvania under the direction of Dr. Carl Kelsey. The university started a course

of like character in 1899 but limited it to college men. The present plan provides for the admission of both men and women who are interested in social work. It is designed as an introductory course, the aim being to give the beginner a general idea of the field of service.

The work will be divided into six general topics and under different phases of these subjects, lectures will be given from Monday to Friday of each week. On the five Saturdays the class will visit institutions in and about Philadelphia. A representative list of lecturers has been prepared for the daily lectures. The following are the weekly topics to be discussed under the leadership of the instructors indicated: A general summary of the work under Dr. Samuel McCune Lindsay; *Management of Private Charitable Societies*, G. B. Mangold; *Public and Private Relief*, J. Lynn Barnard; *Work for Children*, Dr. Kelsey; *The Church and Industrial Problems*, Dr. Lindsay; and *Neighborhood Work*, under Dr. Kelsey.

Conference of National Municipal League

The twelfth annual meeting of the National Municipal League will be held in Atlantic City, April 24-27. The developments of the past year in so many forms of civic activity give added interest to a program of practical topics to be presented by practical people.

The conference opens on Tuesday, April 24, with an address of welcome by Frank P. Stoy, mayor of Atlantic City. Professor Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard, will respond. The important municipal events of the year will be reviewed by Clinton Rogers Woodruff. Other topics for the opening session will be *United Cities Platform* by Charles Richardson of Philadelphia, and *Ballot Reform and the Massachusetts Law* by Richard Henry Dana of Cambridge, Mass.

Wednesday morning will be given over to a discussion of practical problems encountered during the year in some of the large cities. Papers will be presented by A. Julius Freiberg of Cincinnati, Lawrence Veiller of New York, Lucius B. Swift of Indianapolis, James Causey of Denver, Thomas R. White of

Philadelphia, Edmund Billings of Boston, E. R. Cheesborough of Galveston, Henry Weinstock of San Francisco, and Lafon Allen of Louisville. The afternoon session will consider the municipal needs of New Jersey.

The "public officials" meeting of the evening will be addressed by Mayor Weaver of Philadelphia, Mayor Dimick of Scranton, Pa., and Mayor Cutler of Rochester, N. Y. Secretary Bonaparte, president of the league, will preside at the meeting on Thursday morning. William C. Langdon will speak on juvenile civic activity, Dr. Edward M. Hartwell of Boston on the police question and L. G. Powers of the census bureau of Washington, with A. B. Peckinbaugh of Columbus, O., will discuss municipal accounting reform. Other topics will be the referendum vote by Louis F. Post of *The Public*, Chicago, and corrupt municipal practices by Horace E. Deming of New York.

The president's address by Charles J. Bonaparte will be given on Thursday evening, April 26, and the conference will close on Friday with a discussion of municipal ownership and operation in American cities.

**Chicago
Tuberculosis
Institute.**

The effective campaign carried on for the past two years by the tuberculosis committee of the Visiting Nurse Association has led to the organization of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute. In its work will be centralized all that of the agencies which have given any attention to the study, prevention and cure of consumption and other forms of tuberculosis. The co-operation it will bring about among these various organizations whatever their particular phase of social effort, should enhance the effectiveness of the general movement.

The work will be taken up under the following departments:

Department of Education.—To continue in general the work carried on by the committee—administration, investigation, lectures, printed matter, bibliography, correspondence.

Dispensary Department.—This department is to establish at once and manage a central dispensary, which is to provide medical treatment for ambulant cases (all forms of tuberculosis), exert beneficial activity in the families of consumptives, and by all possible

means work for the improvement of sanitary conditions in the home.

Department of Sanatoria, Hospitals and Health Camps.—This department will endeavor to provide institutional care for poor consumptives.

Department of Immunity Research.—Will conduct experiments seeking to make possible the artificial immunization of man, on similar lines to the successful methods now employed in cattle.

The institute is to be affiliated with the Illinois State Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis and the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis. Supporting membership, on payment of \$10.00, will include active membership in the Illinois State Association, annual contributions of \$50 or more to the institute will similarly include membership in the National Association.

It is probable that the first definite thing undertaken by the institute will be the establishment of a dispensary. Various localities for this are now being considered. The institute officers for 1906 are as follows:

President:	Dr. Frank Billings.
1st Vice-President:	Dr. R. H. Babcock.
2nd Vice-President:	Mrs. E. L. Gaylord.
Secretary:	Mr. Ernest P. Bicknell.
Treasurer:	Mr. James H. Eckels.

Directors:

Mrs. Arthur T. Aldis,	Mr. S. C. Kingsley,
Dr. N. S. Davis, Jr.,	Dr. A. C. Klebs.
Dr. W. A. Evans,	Mr. Stanley McCormick,
Dr. H. B. Favill,	Dr. C. L. Mix,
Miss Harriet Fulmer,	Dr. John A. Robinson,
Dr. E. A. Gray,	Dr. E. W. Ryerson,
Prof. E. O. Jordan,	Dr. T. B. Sachs,
Mrs. Dudley Winston.	

The first meeting of the Women's Municipal League of New York, held in its new rooms at 19 East Twenty-sixth street, was given over to a memorial service for one of its founders—Josephine Shaw Lowell. The occasion was of special interest because so many members of the Municipal League were actively associated with Mrs. Lowell in different lines of work.

The meeting was presided over by Miss Chanler, president of the league. Miss Grace H. Dodge told of Mrs. Lowell's work in connection with the Boston peace conference. Quietly working in New York while the Boston meetings were being held she was the moving spirit

**Memorial
Meeting for
Mrs. Lowell.**

behind all the New York meetings. Mrs. Lowell was herself the embodiment of the spirit of peace.

"Whatever your heart finds to do, do it with your might," was the principle on which Mrs. Lowell acted, said Miss Kate Bond in speaking of her work in the New York Charity Organization Society. It was in this spirit that she lifted up the fallen, strengthened the weak, soothed the distressed and protected the young. She was always in earnest in her work, she said, and it was for that reason that everyone believed in her. Miss Louisa Lee Schuyler spoke appreciatively of Mrs. Lowell's work in connection with the State Charities Aid Association and Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows told of her work in the Prison Association of New York. In the words of a well known person "Her ideas used to be considered Utopian, but—well, we've adopted most of them now." Mrs. Barrows told how year after year Mrs. Lowell had sent material for the girls' hand work to the Bedford Reformatory when the state refused to do its part. And later, when it looked as if this reformatory must go, Mrs. Lowell saved the day. She advocated reformatories for all under thirty years of age in all states—institutions where they could be sent, not for punishment but for cure.

Mrs. William H. Schieffelin, in speaking of the Women's Auxiliary to the Civil Service Reform Association, said that in 1894 Carl Schurz asked Mrs. Lowell to organize the auxiliary. This she did and until a short time before her last illness was a regular attendant at all meetings and an active leader in the work.

Lilian D. Wald described the work of the East Side Relief Committee during the fall and winter of 1893. Mrs. Lowell she said was not, like so many others, blindly enthusiastic in her endeavors to relieve the suffering poor. When the committee was organized all were impressed with the great care that must be exercised if harm were not done. Mrs. Lowell gave her entire time to the work and when the artificial employment was created and the additional street cleaners were set to work, it was found that as a result of careful administration no one was injured but the whole city was benefit-

ted. Dr. Jane E. Robbins told of the practical aid Mrs. Lowell gave to the striking tailors during the winter of 1893 and 1894—how she had personally appeared in their behalf and how the tailors finally won the struggle.

Mrs. Lowell was one of the founders of the Consumers' League and was its first president. Mrs. Frederick Nathan spoke of Mrs. Lowell's work in the league and dwelt on her zeal and unflinching sense of duty. "She builded better than she knew," said Mrs. Nathan, "for all the time she was building she was in reality creating a temple for her own soul."

A Great Ocean Beach for New York.

A great ocean beach for New York city has been brought one step nearer by the action of the state legislature in passing a bill which will permit the city of New York to purchase such a beach either within the city limits or in a county immediately adjacent. The bill permits the appropriation by the city of \$2,500,000 for purchase and \$250,000 for maintenance and construction in the year 1906, and provides that thereafter the city shall include in its annual budget a suitable appropriation for maintenance. The control of the beach when purchased is to be in the hands of the Department of Parks; but whenever an amount sufficient to construct a convalescent hospital to provide for those patients from the city hospitals needing such care, has been appropriated by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, the city may withdraw from the control of the park department such portions of the beach as may be necessary for the hospital. Under this plan, the recreation features will be under the control of the park department as is proper, and the hospital will be under the control of either the Board of Health, the commissioner of charities, or the trustees of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals. Either or all of these departments may erect such hospitals.

The third feature of the bill is that those philanthropic societies that maintain fresh air homes may apply to the city and receive permission to erect such homes upon the beach. These societies

are to hold such permit for a period of thirty years, which may be renewed thereafter at the discretion of the city authorities for periods of not more than twenty years each.

There is practical unanimity of opinion that the city under the provisions of this bill should secure Rockaway Beach as the site for the future park since this is the only great beach within the city limits which can now be purchased.

Medievalism in Medicine

We have had frequent occasion to pay our modest tribute of respect to the public spirit and breadth of view of members of the medical profession. Probably no other profession can match it in the quality of its best or its representative men. Now and then however some one arises to take a position which is so exasperating and medieval as to make us almost inclined to say in our haste that all doctors are bourbons, and that the health officer who said that he would rather any time educate the tenement-house population on any new question than the physicians had much excuse.

On the present occasion it is a physician in the city of Washington, Dr. J. B. Custis by name, who stirs our wrath. No doubt this gentleman misrepresents his profession, unless indeed he is himself misrepresented by the reporters. He does not believe in compulsory registration of tuberculosis. He says that the statistics are all wrong and that Washington is "one of the healthiest cities in the United States in this respect." If Dr. Custis can convince himself of this in the face of the record of deaths from the disease to be found in the federal census and in the returns of the local health authorities, he is welcome to whatever comfort his conviction may bring him.

It is however another argument which especially interests us. If this bill (requiring registration) should become a law, pleads this exponent of the science of medicine and of the art of healing, "*it would not only be necessary to build a place to treat consumption, but it would be necessary to support many of the patients.*" Think of it! If we knew how many patients there are, and who

they are, and where they are, it would not only be necessary to build a place to treat them, but to feed and shelter them until they are cured. By lying about their number, and deceiving ourselves we can bring ourselves to let them die or get well as best they can. Let us not register them lest by knowing about them we shall have to do something to help them.

The bill proposed by "the doctors" as a substitute for the measure presented by the committee on the prevention of consumption, provides for the registration only of the consumptive who is poor. This would be class legislation, ineffective and undemocratic. The committee should stand by its original bill and the commissioners should stand by the committee.

Notes of the Week

\$800,000 for Charities.—By the will of Mrs. Lucy H. Boardman, who died recently in New Haven, Conn., \$800,000 is given to charitable and educational organizations. During her life Mrs. Boardman gave \$750,000 to different institutions. Among the organizations benefited are Tuskegee Institute, \$10,000, and the following New Haven institutions: Home for the Friendless, \$10,000; New Haven Orphan Asylum, \$5,000; Organized Charities, \$10,000; General Hospital Society, \$150,000 for a new building and \$25,000 for maintaining it; Grace Hospital, \$10,000; Anti-Tuberculosis Association, \$25,000; dispensary, \$10,000. Yale University and Sheffield Scientific School get \$10,000 each for helping needy students.

Visiting Nursing, Seattle.—The Charity Organization Society of Seattle, Washington, has recently established visiting nursing among its beneficiaries, and Mrs. A. G. Greene has been placed in charge. There is also a project on foot for the society to take up the local fight against the great white plague. The cities of the far west are getting abreast of those of the Atlantic seaboard.

Sanatorium for Hebrew Children.—A large hospital is being built by the Sanatorium for Hebrew Children of Chicago on its ocean-front property at Rockaway Park. The money for the hospital was raised by voluntary subscriptions and donations, the nucleus of the fund being \$10,000 given last fall by Jacob H. Schiff.

\$80,000 for Women's Home.—Former mayor Samuel H. Ashbridge of Philadelphia, who died three weeks ago, has left the bulk of his estate to found the "Samuel H. Ashbridge Home for Indigent Widows and Single Women." Aside from bequests to his family, the remainder of his estate, amounting to \$80,000, is to be used for building the home.

Fireside Industries among the Boers

Isabel C. Barrows

South Africa is so far away that it takes more imagination than most of us possess to picture the state of things there after the disastrous war with England. Ruined farms, burned homes, scattered families did not make up all of the misery. Death took many men and the fortunes of war swept away possessions and left hundreds of women and girls with no way of meeting the hard future. Unused to manual labor, untrained in any productive industries, they suffered and were dumb.

But a brave Englishwoman, who in her own country had made herself unpopular with those who favored the Boer war because she had thrown herself body and soul against it, came to their rescue. Emily Hobhouse, niece of the late Lord Hobhouse, went herself to South Africa and was convinced from her own observations that something eminently practical had to be done. It was not enough to distribute, as she did, the funds she had collected in England and elsewhere to meet immediate suffering; these girls and women must be taught to help themselves. Again she made the long journey back to Great Britain. There she and her friend Margaret Clark, entered a textile factory and spent a year in learning the secrets of spinning, dyeing, weaving and hosiery knitting. A little more than a year ago they braved the weary journey once more to teach the Boer women how to make use of the wool which they raise, for they have several kinds, a fine merino, a stronger and coarser variety, and beautiful angora.

On the 19th of March, last year, they opened their first school in Philipopolis, with sixteen spinning wheels and two or three looms which they had taken down with them. Six girls appeared, "bright-looking and eager, very shy and quiet. They took to the work like ducks to the water and sat at the loom as though they had never done anything else." In a month the number ran up to seventeen and in that short time the clever teachers had experimented so wisely that Miss Hobhouse writes:

We have found out that we can make a very nice sort of alpaca with cotton warp and fine angora web, and this washes beautifully. The girls can spin the angora on my old-fashioned wheels beautifully fine. I am now putting on a silk warp, to try a silk and angora mixture, thinking that will make a rich material. We have to keep on finding out the best way of dealing with the raw material at hand.

Dyeing used to be practiced in the old days, but the knowledge of it is passing away. The girls are therefore taught to keep "color books," finding out from their parents and recording the plants and trees from which dye stuffs may be collected, the methods of using them and specimens of different textiles which they dye. It is thoroughly practical work.

More orders for rugs, carpets, stockings, dish cloths and other things came in than they could make with their appliances. Miss Hobhouse wrote to her friends that she wished she could have a "shipload of wheels," so that the mothers in the homes could spin and dye the yarns for her looms. Happily she has in Switzerland a friend, the Countess Evelyn degli Asinelli, whose heart is as broad as her mind is fertile in plans and through her instrumentality the Swiss peasants were invited to search their lofts and send to the Boers all the spinning wheels that could be spared. There was a touch of romance about this that appealed to the people of the land of Tell. Here was a high-bred and beautiful English woman, Italian only by name, trying to make good to the stricken Boers the losses which her own countrymen had inflicted on them, and summoning to her aid the freedom-loving and industrious peasants of a noble republic. The peasants responded with joy. 450 wheels, filling sixty-six large packing cases were contributed. The countess begged for money to pay transportation and to pay extra teachers to carry on the work, which was fast growing out of the power of two pairs of hands to carry on.

People in France, Germany, Holland, Italy and the United States, have added their share, not to the extent they would

if they could realize how admirable is the work and how successfully it is managed, but they have given enough to keep the hearts of the brave workers strong and cheerful. Nothing succeeds like success and as soon as those who have means find out how far this little candle is shedding its beams they will hasten to make it like the gigantic wax columns carried in church processions, instead of the little tallow dip first kindled to light the fireside industries of the Transvaal.

A letter just received from Miss Hobhouse, written in February, says that the wheels placed side by side are a joyful sight and the thought that they have been given with so much love and generosity adds greatly to their value, while it is impossible to look at them without emotion, so many have bits of unfinished work in them, doubtless begun by hands long since quiet in death. Under date of February 4 she writes from Philippiopolis:

I seem to have been doing little else lately than unpacking, oiling and testing Swiss wheels; nineteen have been given away and twelve more must be examined before tomorrow. They have come in the nick of time, for undoubtedly the spinning industry has taken firm root. It is delightful to see how, slowly but surely, the work has advanced, quite beyond my wildest hopes, within the first twelve months. In the hamlets of Ragelsfontein and Waterkloof, besides several outlying farms, quite a number of people spin who have been taught by our pupils. The fact that in this school we may now be sure of a regular and sufficient supply

of yarn, means more to the success of the weaving than anyone can imagine who has not been through all the anxiety we have in this past year.

It is cheering to go from room to room and see great bundles of skeins hanging round every pole. In other ways, too, I am immensely encouraged. The tone of the school is admirable, the spirit and conduct of the girls excellent.

There is to be an exhibition of home-made Boer articles at Johannesburg in April, and I have been asked to supply a whole stall. Consequently there is quite a flutter among our girls as to the rugs they will make during the next seven weeks, and a dread lest the dyes won't hold out. It is difficult at present to get any local vegetable dye; the ground is so hard with the drought, that the roots of the bushes cannot be dug out.

There are certain things which will always make the industry difficult in this country:

1. Lack of water for scouring, dyeing and teasing. We are often delayed days by this.
2. Heat, so that hours of work can only be short and output little compared with Europe.
3. Enormous distances of workers from any center.
4. High rates of railway for sending goods to the customers.

These are permanent obstacles. Added, of course, are many others which make it difficult for us to *start*, as cost of traveling for the staff of teachers, customs dues on imported goods, and the cost of living.

Yesterday was Saturday, and it was delightful to find girls from six and seven hours' distance, coming in for church and calling at the school with big bundles of yarn to sell, and to pick up new ideas and new patterns to take home. In this way they will keep in touch with us, and if only we had a motor or a cart and horse, we could drive round to see them and stay a night here and there.

A Child's Death, the Public's Concern

Mary Sherman

National Consumers' League

A child died in New York after eating green candy. Six weeks have elapsed and no action has been taken to place the responsibility for this particular death, if caused by poisoning; or to prevent similar candy from being sold to other children if the candy contained harmful ingredients. The situation involves more than the promptness to act, or lack of promptness, of a particular New York coroner. It raises the question concretely not only of the need for pure food legislation, but that in every com-

munity more definite responsibility should be placed on some official department to act in such cases.

The following facts have been brought to light through an investigation made by the Consumers' League in New York.

On February 25, a little girl living at 414 W. 52nd street, New York, died after eating a few pennies worth of green candy. This sudden illness and death seemed sufficiently serious to Coroner Julius Harburger to warrant a post mortem examination. The examination

took place on February 26, and up to this writing, April 9, no result of that examination has been reported, no chemical analysis of either the candy or the child's stomach has ever been made by a city official and the matter apparently has been dropped. A death certificate was filed at the board of health which reads as follows: "I hereby certify that I have viewed said body and from autopsy and evidence, that she died on the 25th day of February, 1906, and that the cause of her death was gastro enteritis, congestion of the brain." The physician in charge of the specimens taken at the time of the autopsy states that an authoritative opinion as to the actual cause of death cannot be given until an analysis of the child's stomach is made.

From the account of relatives and physician the child was strong and well up to the time of her sudden illness. On Friday she went with her little brother and step father to a candy store near her home and was given a small bag full of colored sugar candy, from which she carefully selected all of the bright green pieces. These she divided in part with her little brother. The following morning she was unable to eat her breakfast and was taken violently ill with nausea and cramps which continued throughout the day and by Sunday the child was dead.

Her little brother who had eaten his small share of the candy was very ill, but recovered.

The child's physician, Dr. William McAlpin, says emphatically that there was a condition which he was unable to account for, which had the appearance of poisoning. The circumstances of her death were so suspicious to him that he notified the coroner. The physician is still waiting to learn the final result of the post mortem examination.

When notices of the death appeared in the daily papers with large head lines, the coroner is reported to have said: "If any trace of poison is found in the child's organs or the candy is found to contain poisonous substances I shall order the arrest of this dealer. His store is near a public school and I learned that between 300 and 400 children visit his shop every day." The coroner omitted

to add that though the loose pieces of candy in the can from which they were sold were taken for examination, a quantity of the same candy was left to be sold to other children and the ingredients that had been used were left in the store. It should be said in fairness to the dealer himself that he makes his candy in a clean room, using materials which he buys of a wholesale house of good repute and that he had no reason to believe he was selling harmful goods. The fault if any would appear to lie further back. If the child died by other unnatural means the public should know this, and the candy dealer should be exonerated.

After the post mortem examination the mother waited a week; then wrote through her physician to ask how her child had died. No cause was given, and she was sent to Dr. Larkin of the College of Physicians and Surgeons who had the contents of the stomach in charge, but he was unable to tell her anything beyond the cause given in the death certificate. The Consumers' League has made repeated inquiries to ascertain the full result of the examination and finds that no analysis of either the candy or the child's stomach has yet been made.

Six weeks after the death, the mother is still in ignorance as to its real cause and the mothers whose children buy candy at this same store are not yet informed as to the nature of the poisoning.

The general public has forgotten the case. Persons who read the accounts in the papers were probably satisfied to see that the coroner was to take action in the matter. The public does not know that the only way for the coroner to have such an examination made would be to have a sum appropriated from the contingency fund which is under the control of the district attorney, and that to pay a large sum to ascertain definitely how a little girl met her death might seem an unwarranted extravagance!

Why are we so negligent in a matter of this kind? How is it that a child died on February 25, apparently of poison, and that by April 9 we are still in ignorance of the cause of her death?

In the Field of Organizing Charity

Cleveland Conference.

The seventh conference of the Cleveland Associated Charities was held at the home of Mayor Tom L. Johnson and was attended by about two hundred people. Dr. Hastings Hart of Chicago spoke on the care of dependent children, describing the placing out system of the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society. He called attention to the fact that the Protestant Orphan Asylum of Cleveland had initiated the placing out system in Ohio some thirty years ago, but said that there is need of an organization corresponding to the Illinois society which shall do this work on a larger scale.

In answer to a question from Judge Addams of the juvenile court, he recommended that the orphan asylums of Cleveland offer their facilities to the judge. He also suggested the possibility of the women's clubs taking up the work of providing probation officers for the court. Mrs. M. E. Rawson, president of Day Nursery and Free Kindergarten Association, which supports eleven free kindergartens and five day nurseries, opened the discussion by putting in a strong plea for keeping the family together whenever possible. Other speakers were Judge Henry of the Circuit Court, Judge Addams of the Juvenile Court, and Rev. Minot O. Simons.

Charitable Spasms.

St. Louis offers a good illustration of how organized charity often suffers from its well-meaning friends. There are at present three separate humane societies in that city, which concern themselves with the prosecution of drunken parents and improper guardians. These societies are all officered by respectable men and women; their fields are practically identical and only petty differences seem to keep them apart. But this is not enough, a fourth society is contemplated.

A newsboys' home was started by a group of sincerely interested women; they rented a building which they equipped well, but as the methods of a reformatory were to be used in dealing with the newsboy, he will not go near it. The furniture has been sold at a sacrifice and all that is left is the disgust for organized charity felt by the contributors to the enterprise.

A similarly sad result has befallen the starting of a school for bettering the condition of poor girls who were to be taught household arts, scientific and domestic economy, cooking, table service, instrumental and vocal music, painting, dressmaking, etc. The promotor of the project was a woman of refinement who contributed \$2,000 of her own money and raised about \$500 additional to

start the work. Auxiliaries were to be provided in various parts of the city, a fine house was rented and fully equipped. But "poor girls" did not give conscious encouragement to those setting out to "improve their condition." The enterprise has been abandoned.

The "Passing The method of "passing Along" Process. along" individuals or families who ask for transportation, without making any inquiry as to whether the prospect of applicants will be materially improved is evidently still in existence. Of this selfish and heartless process a flagrant example has recently come to the attention of several charitable societies.

Early in March of this year there arrived in the Union Station, St. Louis, a group consisting of husband, wife, a nineteen-year old son, the wife's father and brother and the eight-year old daughter of this brother. They had been "passed along" by an associated charities west of St. Louis, which gave no better reason than, "We do not know as this is the proper thing for us to do; in fact, we do not know what else we can do under the circumstances. We do not think they can be made self-supporting. Of course, we could keep them until we wrote and verified their story, but there seems little chance of their procuring financial aid from friends."

There was but one member of the party capable of continuous work, namely, the husband, and he is frail and not capable of hard labor. The wife is suffering from a tumor, the father is too old to do anything but some cobbling, the wife's brother has heart disease and asthma, the son is tuberculous and has always been an invalid. It appears that the group left Connecticut last October to go to Los Angeles, California, expecting to establish themselves as farmers, and to benefit the health of their son. On arrival at Los Angeles they had about \$150 which they found wholly inadequate for establishing themselves independently. After a two-months' hopeless search for employment in a glutted labor market, they made their way to Tucson, Arizona, when their resources were about exhausted, but as no work was found there and they had become practically penniless, the trustees of the poor of Tucson, who possibly knew no better, "passed them along" to the city which within twenty-four hours unceremoniously gave them to St. Louis. St. Louis is not hankering to carry other people's burdens, but the wife and brother's child were comfortably housed at the Women's Lodge of the Provident Society, the four men hired a room nearby and with some help in provisions and work they main-

tained themselves while an effort was being made to raise the sum of \$140 required to send them through to their original point of departure.

The unoffending traveler in the middle ages, and for that matter in our not far-distant pioneer days, generally met with a hospitality which softened the hardships of a journey. Our poor masters and some of our associated charities are especially interested to speed "the departing guest" to the extent that he may reach the next city. While the inconsiderate and unwise action of the family in going across the continent with small resources and small chances of success is not to be encouraged, or excused, this mistake cannot be atoned for by subjecting them to hardships akin to cruelty,—such cruelty as was inevitable in this "passing along" system,—and by inflicting hardship and expenses upon communities successively which had no part in the matter.

As early as 1814 the Ladies' **The Charleston Ladies' Benevolent Society of Charleston, S. C.**, provided poor women with sewing in their own workrooms and gave garments that were made to those who needed them. It has recently issued its ninety-third annual report. Among its other activities it administers a fund for old and needy colored people and provides comforts and delicacies which mean so much to the sick poor. By its co-operation with the Associated Charities it utilizes to the full its charitable efforts and aims to prevent overlapping.

Coincidentally with a change **Associated Charities in San Antonio, Tex.** of name to Associated Charities, the Charity Association of San Antonio and Bexar County, Texas, which was organized in 1903, has also ceased to be simply a relief society. San Antonio is a cosmopolitan city of 70,000 people, whose large foreign population and foreign habits of life present most of the problems of a large city. For this reason its need of the principles of organized charity to help to Americanize its population is most pressing. The cordality and liberality of the South as it becomes wealthy, must necessarily lead to indiscriminate charity which generally means that trifling needs are lavishly met while great needs are not recognized or must wait. The development of effective co-operation of churches and other charities in suppressing begging, which, according to an old Mexican custom is legally permissible on Saturdays, and the adequate care of the sick poor who come to San Antonio as a health resort, are tasks which at present are taxing the organization's energies. Miss Marion I. Moore, who organized the Syracuse, N. Y., Associated Charities, has taken charge of the work.

In Japan. In the annual report of the Yokohama Charity Organization Society for the period between September 1, 1904, and August 31, 1905, this statement of the work is made:

During the twelve months the society has been able, with the co-operation and assistance of the Salvation Army, to extend relief to fifty-eight destitute persons. These include twenty-nine seamen, fourteen firemen, seven clerks, two teachers, one blacksmith, one carpenter, one civil engineer, one photographer, one book-keeper, and one engineer.

The nationalities were as follows:

American, twelve; French, one; Australian, six; British, eighteen; German, four; Swedish, two; Austrian, three; Norwegian, six; unknown, six. The relief given consisted approximately of 255 nights' lodging, 274 days' board and three assisted passages to China and America. Also food and other various necessities to local poor, besides contributions towards the maintenance of several old residents.

In the Japanese *Official Gazette* appears a list of over 210 men of the navy who, having been crippled by wounds and relieved from further military service, have received a flannel shirt and a present of money from the empress. Her majesty extends the same benevolence to the army, and the number of recipients up to the latest date was eighty-one non-commissioned officers and 1,133 of the rank and file.

United Charities and Arithmetic. The United Hebrew Charities of New York has issued an ingenious appeal for funds under the heading, *An Example in Arithmetic*. The problem reads: "What proportion of each \$10 of my annual contribution to the United Hebrew Charities do I give to each class of its beneficiaries, the 1905 relief fund having been distributed as follows":

	Per cent.
For 1,388 widows and 4,371 children.....	28
For 1,124 deserted women with 2,817 children	14
For 882 consumptives.....	17
For 3,229 other sick people.....	21
For 794 applicants over 60 years of age..	5
For 1,940 other applicants.....	15
Total	100
The "answer" gives the percentages figured out in dollars and cents, as follows:	
For widows and children.....	\$2.80
For deserted women with children....	1.40
For consumptives	1.70
For other sick people.....	2.10
For applicants over 60 years of age....	.50
For other applicants.....	1.50
Total	\$10.00

Salary Loans The Baltimore Charity Organization Society has secured the passage in Maryland of a bill by which it hopes to reduce very much the salary loans which prove so pernicious to poor

struggling families. It is a common practice for a concern which has "money to loan" to accept as security from customers assignments of wages which, under the Maryland law, are utterly valueless and known to be so when accepted, the only object being to give the lender a club with which to terrorize the borrower. Probably ninety per cent. of these loans are for not more than \$50. The money must be paid back in monthly instalments with interest, which amounts to one hundred per cent. per annum. The employer and wife in most cases know nothing of the assignment. Many employers have threatened their employees with instant discharge

if such assignments are made. As long as payments are made regularly everything, so to speak, goes well, but usually payments are almost if not quite impossible from the small wages of the employee, and threatened discharge leads him to desperation and to crime. The new bill, which is almost identical with the Illinois statute, will require the lender to give notice to the employer of an assignment having been made by the employee, and both husband and wife, if the borrower is married, must sign the necessary papers and have their signatures duly acknowledged before a notary. This law should become an effective deterrent.

Public Care of Dependents and Defectives

The Death of Judge Kinne.

Judge L. G. Kinne, for many years a prominent member of the Iowa State Board of Control, died on March 15, after an illness of eight weeks. Judge Kinne's death removes one of the foremost workers in public charity in the middle west. No better evidence of this could be urged than a bill which passed the Iowa legislature, just adjourned, appropriating \$50,000 for the location of a sanatorium for consumptives, providing that the State Board of Control shall have the matter in charge. Judge Kinne worked hard and faithfully toward this end, but died without knowing the results of his labor in this the most recent public undertaking with which he is identified.

The Iowa State Board of Control has been from its inception among the most successful of its kind. Its membership has always been composed of men of the highest character and this, in a state where the character of public men ranks high. Perhaps no other similar board has been so useful to its state.

Before the board was created there had not been any central supervision of institutions. While the institutions, on the whole, were well managed and there was little reasonable complaint of extravagance, favoritism, or inefficiency, yet, since the board's vigorous work, there is no doubt their average standard has risen appreciably. Among several notable features which this board has had alone among similar agencies, has been a quarterly conference of institution superintendents, trustees and executive officers. The proceedings of this conference, published in a pamphlet of from 150 to 200 pages, form very interesting reading. Frequently experts from other states were called upon to attend and make addresses or to furnish papers, but the important thing was that the superintendents themselves were called out. They were spurred up to their utmost effort, as to theory at any rate, in the conference, and the comparisons of results obtained in different institutions were of

great value. In all this work, Judge Kinne has been a leader. His influence, as much as that of any one man, has been felt in every department of the state's Charities and Corrections as a very worthy member of a most notable board.

Louisiana Board of Charities.

The new Board of Charities of Louisiana has issued its first annual report, dated March 1, 1906. This board has the great disadvantage that not only its members but its secretary also must serve without compensation. The constitution of the state provides that the secretary's salary shall be fixed by the legislature and the legislature says the secretary shall serve without pay. If, under such discouraging circumstances, the board succeeds in doing good work for the state, it will be very much to the credit of the patriotism and public spirit of its members.

Progress in Indiana.

The Indiana State Board's report has come out within the last few days and it is, as usual, full of good suggestions and well-digested statistics. Contract labor in prisons is not yet quite done away with. The state prison has made a contract for a binder-twine plant to be run on state account and to employ a large number of prisoners formerly on contracts. The number of inmates of institutions continues to increase, the number now under the supervision of the board being 84,916 and the expense of their care for the year over \$2,500,000. This means that the number of inmates of the state institutions has grown about ninety per cent. during the sixteen years of the board's existence. At the same time the number in the poor houses has decreased four per cent.

The Indiana method of supervising township relief by the State Board continues to work well. The reduction of sixty-six per cent. in the outdoor relief which was effected a few years ago has been maintained with only a slight increase. Some other recent improvements in method of equipment of the

charitable and correctional work of this state have been already mentioned in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS.

Ohio Provides for Crippled Children. The Ohio State Board publishes its thirtieth annual report. Among its most important recommendations is one that the state should provide some care for crippled and deformed children. This has been suggested by the board from time to time for a number of years past and at last, at the present session of the legislature, the state has adopted the plan and an institution is now to be provided. The total appropriation is only \$50,000, but the principle has been won and there is no doubt that larger appropriations will be made when necessary.

At the recommendation of the board, the legislature has also inserted a clause in its appropriation bill which allows the boards of trustees of institutions to send either their officers or their members, or both, to the National and State Conferences of Charities and other such meetings. This expenditure of state funds has for some years been strictly prohibited. The board makes many other recommendations to the legislature, but these are the most important that have been acted upon favorably.

J. Mack Tanner Leaves Illinois Board. We regret to see that Mr. J. Mack Tanner leaves the Board of State Charities of Illinois on April 1. Mr. Tanner accepted the position under this board under circumstances which were decidedly difficult. To some men they would have been impossible. He has won the friendship of most of those who know him. He has evidently studied hard to bring himself up to the level on which the secretary of a state board of charities should stand and has steadily gained in the opinion of some who criticised his first appointment quite seriously.

Handbook of Institutional Dietaries. The Board of State Charities of New York has recently published and circulated a handbook of dietaries for institutions, prepared by Florence R. Corbett, dietitian of the Department of Public Charities of New York city. This is issued in clear and readable form and is arranged so as to be very useful to persons who have not had scientific instruction. The general principles it sets forth upon the selection, preparation and serving of food will be very helpful and the sample dietaries will no doubt be frequently used as, at any rate, a basis for institutional work. The dietaries offered are divided into "minimum dietaries," "approved dietaries" and "maximum dietaries" and are suitable for hospitals for the insane, homes for aged, homes for children and others. The maximum dietaries are meant specially for the benefit of tuberculous patients, for whom plus nutrition is the most important require-

ment. There are also dietaries given for the officers, house staff and nurses in institutions.

Milwaukee County and the "Town System." An interesting legal fight is now on in Wisconsin between the board of trustees of charitable institutions, both of Milwaukee county. The latter board is appointed by the former pursuant to legislation of the last session. There is a "town system" and a "county system" in Wisconsin for conducting institutions; the supervisors of each county deciding under which plan their institutions shall be run. Milwaukee county has recently become rather famous for scandals and the last legislature enacted that its supervisors, instead of conducting their institutions themselves, should appoint a board of trustees from outside their own board to do it. The hope in this was probably to localize responsibility and so abate some serious misgovernment and extravagance. The supervisors objected to creating this board and only did so on the assurance of the district attorney that there was no way to avoid it.

Now they have evolved the plan of doing away with the board of trustees by going back to the town system from which they changed many years ago. There is a suit pending in the Circuit Court to test the constitutionality of the law creating the board of trustees and other changes will no doubt be deferred until this is settled.

State Board of Charities—Colorado. The seventh biennial report of the Board of Charities and Correction of Colorado is just issued. It is elaborately gotten up on hot pressed paper with cuts of many of the institutions, but it is for the period ending November 30, 1904, and therefore, somewhat belated. The chapter on juvenile courts is very interesting and is illustrated by a fine picture of Judge Ben B. Lindsey. The frontispiece is a portrait of Lottie Sullivan, deaf, dumb and blind, a pupil of the Deaf and Blind Institution at Colorado Springs. She has not only been taught in a literary way, but is a typewritist, sews nicely by hand and machine, takes lessons in sloyd and is very neat and attractive in her dress and person.

The board recommends to the legislature that an institution for the custodial care of the feeble-minded should be established; also a department for the care of criminal insane. Other recommendations are,—labor for all convicts, the merit system in the employment of the servants of the state, improvements at various institutions, a state agent for the care of children paroled from the industrial schools and men and women paroled from the reformatory and penitentiary. The board also asks that it may be relieved of its duties as a sort of side partner of the state board of pardons, for which it seems the State Board of Charities must furnish all the necessary clerical help.

**Illinois
Conference
Proceedings.**

The tenth Illinois conference was held at Pontiac, October 24-26 last year and in January the proceedings, in a very neat volume of 136 pages, with excellent typography, were issued. The printing was done at the State Reformatory printing trade school and is certainly a credit to the officers of that school.

The president elected for last year was John A. Brown, who died shortly after his choice, so that Mr. Mallory, who is superintendent at the State Reformatory at Pontiac and who was first vice-president, presided. For next year the president will be Ernest P. Bicknell of Chicago, and the secretary Colonel J. Mack Tanner, of Springfield, who, when he was elected was secretary of the State Board of Charities, but is now out of the profession.

The quality of the papers was decidedly above the average of such meetings. Among the speakers were Jane Addams of Hull House, Julia C. Lathrop, just reappointed member of the State Board of Charities, Judge Julian W. Mack, Dr. Josephine C. Milligan and others, not quite so well known but of great ability. The subject of *Immigrants in Relation to Charity, The Juvenile Court*, and other problems were given special prominence. Miss Addams spoke on the *Immigrant and Charities*, Judge Mack on *The Immigrant and the Juvenile Court*. Miss Lathrop presented an address on *The Care of the Insane*, looked at from the layman's point of view.

As was natural, considering the recent civil service legislation in Illinois, the merit system excited considerable attention. An address was given by W. B. Moulton, on its relation to state charitable institutions. Another new agency of the state was represented by Charles Virden, the state agent, whose duties include the visiting and oversight of all the boys and girls placed out from benevolent institutions.

**Trustees for
Epileptic
Village.**

Governor Hanley of Indiana has done a distinct service to the state and brought to himself great credit in his choice of the board of trustees for the new village for epileptics. The members are a banker, a business man and a lawyer. They are among the most worthy citizens of the state. Silas Hale, business man, the Democratic member of the board, was for many years a very valuable member of the board of trustees of the Eastern Hospital for the Insane at Richmond. Enoch C. Hogate, lawyer, is professor of law at the State University and has had valuable experience in the building and conducting of the large Indiana Odd Fellow's Home for Orphans and Old People, of which institution he was secretary of the board of trustees for many years, while Charles P. Henry, banker, stands very high in the esteem of his fellow citizens both professionally and as a good citizen.

This board accompanied by Amos W. But-

ler, secretary Board of State Charities, is now visiting institutions of the same nature as the one they are to organize and manage. They were at Skillman, N. J., March 29; at Sonyea, N. Y., March 30 and 31. They will probably visit several of the larger hospitals for the insane and similar institutions before they return to the west.

**The Rochester
Conference.**

At a meeting this month of the executive committee of the Seventh New York State Conference of Charities and Correction, it was prophesied that an attendance of not less than one thousand delegates would mark the meeting in Rochester November 13 and 15. The committee authorized the president to appoint a new committee for the next conference, to be known as the "committee on reports on cities and counties." The work of this new committee will be to secure reports from the various cities and counties of the state with regard to the work, development and needs of local charities. Mayors of cities and boards of supervisors will be asked to appoint delegates to the Rochester conference. A local committee on organization to appoint members of all local committees in connection with coming conference has already been appointed, and includes in its membership the following well known Rochester people: Rt. Rev. Thomas Hickey, D. D., chairman, vice-president of the conference; Hon. E. V. Stoddard, M. D., president State Board of Charities; Mrs. W. W. Armstrong, chairman of the committee inviting the conference to Rochester; Professor Franklin Briggs, superintendent State Industrial School; Clarence V. Lodge, superintendent of poor of Monroe county; E. H. Howard, M. D., superintendent Rochester State Hospital; L. J. Katz, president United Hebrew Charities; the Rev. Max Landsberg, D. D., and Daniel B. Murphy, resident members of executive committee of conference.

**Jewish Children
for Jewish
Institutions.**

Assemblyman Max Eckmann has introduced a bill in the New York legislature providing that the commissioner of charities of New York city shall, whenever possible, in placing out or committing children, place them in institutions of the same religion as the children's parents. The intent of the bill is stated to be to provide that Jewish children shall be kept in Jewish institutions. A special clause has been in force for some time that Catholic children shall be sent only to homes and asylums supported by the Roman Catholic church. From the report of the State Board of Charities, Mr. Eckmann quoted figures at a recent hearing in Albany, showing that during the year ending Sept. 30, 1905, 655 Jewish children were admitted to institutions managed by Hebrews in Greater New York, while 704 were received in institutions not supported by Jews. The Eckmann bill has a clause specifying that it shall take effect immediately.

Communications

After the Boy Leaves the Institution

Judge Robert J. Wilkin

Court of Special Sessions (Children's Court, Brooklyn)

Johnnie B. was eleven years old, and lived with his parents in one of our city tenements. Johnnie was just an ordinary boy, with all of the natural instinct for fun and action to be found in thousands of his kind. There were two or three other children in his family, and therefore it was pretty hard work for Mrs. B. to keep the home together, which she managed to do after toiling all day long. Mrs. B. worked at office cleaning, and this necessitated her leaving her home at 4.30 o'clock in the morning, to ride to the ferry and reach the great city at a little after five. Then she was busy till half past nine, when she started for home, which she reached in the middle of the morning. All day long she had her housework, washing and mending and cleaning to do, and at four she must again go to the offices to clean. It was nine o'clock before she reached home at night and then, thoroughly fatigued, she was not able to look for Johnnie.

Where was Johnnie's father, you ask? He was not much of a working man, and only made a little each day as a helper in a stable. The family never benefited from this, as it took all he made to pay for his drink and tobacco. The poor wife supplied him with his meals when he "honored" the home with his presence, and usually his arrival in an intoxicated condition was the signal for the children who were old enough to get out of the house.

You can imagine that Johnnie's attendance at school was not regular, in fact, it was many months since he had even visited the school and his visits at home were only periodical. Usually when he knew his mother was away, he would steal in, help himself to what he could get to eat, and then off to the streets again.

Johnnie one day fell into the arms of the police. Found sleeping in a wagon, he was taken to the children's court, where he unfortunately had been before. Probation had been tried, but it was determined that the case required that Johnnie should be cared for in a training institution and he was sent there. Efforts were made to get the father to work, but without much success.

Johnnie remained in the institution for about a year and then, as his mother promised to keep a better watch over him, and as the institution had done as much as it could for him, he was discharged and went home.

But what did he go to? The father was on another of his usual drunks, and when Mrs. B. came in he struck her in the head, felling her to the floor and injuring her back, which prevented her from working for two weeks, and many times was the pawnshop visited.

Early in the time Johnnie's good suit and the shoes he had gotten at the institution went, and then school was out of the question. Johnnie was back on the street again.

What is the lesson to be gathered from this story? Is it not the question whether we have done all we should do in Johnnie's case?

Before the discharge the home had been investigated by the representative of the institution, and when he called the father was out. No neighbor gave a very bad report, and the house, while miserably furnished, had been left clean by Mrs. B.

What could be done then? Under the present conditions perhaps nothing, but why cannot some steps be inaugurated to supervise Johnnie's return to his "home," and try to prevent his coming again before the children's court?

Who is to do this? Should it be done by each institution establishing a system of visiting the home of each discharged child? Or should this supervision be done by the probation agents of the children's court? Or, should a special committee be formed, of such dimensions as to enable it to be divided into a number of small committees, each taking in a restricted territory?

That is a matter that is now occupying the thought of those interested in the children's court in Brooklyn, N. Y., the solution of which will be anxiously awaited.

The subject has been talked over at the regular monthly meetings of the probation officers, when they and the presiding justice talk over experiences, while the justice has laid the matter before those women and men who, since the establishment of the court, have acted as a sort of advisory committee.

Recently the subject was discussed in my chambers, in the Court of Special Sessions in Brooklyn, when there were present, Thomas W. Hynes, president of the St. Vincent de Paul Society; Mrs. Tunis G. Bergen, of the State Probation Commission and the State Charities Aid Association; William I. Nichols, of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities; Rev. William I. White, supervisor of Catholic Charities; Mornay Williams, president of the New York Juvenile Asylum, and Mr. Simon F. Rothschild, of the Hebrew Educational Society.

The matter is to be investigated, and another meeting will be held during the coming month, to determine what action will be taken. A similar condition surely has presented itself in other localities, and it is felt that its solution will aid greatly in benefiting the little "Johnnies" of the children's courts.

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To secure a place in this Directory the name of a Supply House must be submitted by an Institution purchasing from it, and known to the publishers of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS. Published every Saturday.

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REMINGTON TYPEWRITER CO.,

327 Broadway, New York.

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CLARK & WILKINS,

Eleventh Ave., cor. Twenty-fourth St., N. Y.

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Probation Legislation Blocked in New York State.

The first of the week the New York legislature had still under consideration the bills embodying the recommendations of the state probation commission, published in full in the issue of this magazine for March 17. Several amendments have been made to the bills to meet in part the views advanced at the hearings in opposition to certain of their features. It is highly important that the provisions of these bills affecting the cities of the first class should be enacted this year. The question of salaries of probation officers, for which provision has been made by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, but which cannot be paid at present; the question of competitive examinations for probation officers; some provision for the oversight of male offenders released under suspended sentence in the magistrates' courts of Brooklyn; the discontinuance of so-called probation work by police officers in Manhattan (who might be continued as investigators, should the magistrates and police department so desire); the effective organization of the probation work of the magistrates' courts, and many other kindred questions, should be settled without further delay.

The question of state supervision of probation work, as to which there was division of opinion in the probation commission, can be postponed for subsequent consideration. The establishment of municipal probation commissions in the second class cities might be held in abeyance until such commissions have proven their usefulness in cities of the first class,

but there are imperative reasons for passing this year the important provisions of the bills as they relate to the city of New York.

St. Louis School of Philanthropy.

The fourth annual session of the St. Louis School of Philanthropy closed its work April 6 with a lecture by Prof. F. W. Blackmar, of the State University of Kansas. The attendance this year has been uniformly good, averaging something like 188 at each of the various sessions of the conference. Sixty-eight different institutions were represented in the attendance and lectures were delivered by representative speakers on philanthropic work, such as Judge Julian Mack and Dr. Hastings H. Hart of Chicago, Prof. Chas E. Elwood of the University of Missouri, Edward T. Devine of New York, Amos W. Butler, secretary of the Indiana State Board of Charities, James F. Jackson, superintendent Associated Charities of Cleveland.

The St. Louis School of Philanthropy is an outcome of a special work started by the Provident Association of this city three or four years ago and while it has never claimed to be a real school, it has, as a conference, succeeded in bringing those interested in philanthropic effort together for the study of problems relating to their work. Out of these conferences has grown one special effort each year.

First came the organization of a Tuberculosis Commission, which is now permanently established and doing good work.

Then the organization of the St. Louis

Pure Milk Commission, which has for its object the distribution of modified milk among the children in destitute districts of the city. Last year this commission delivered 319,130 bottles of milk at a total expenditure of \$8,609.41.

The next year the organization of a Tenement House Commission was perfected, which has just selected a valuable piece of ground and has ordered plans drawn up for a \$100,000 model tenement building.

Last year the school was permanently organized by the election of a board of directors, composed of representative charity workers of the city. For the present year it has voted to undertake the organization of a state charities aid association and a committee of twenty-one will have direction of the particular work.

**Catholic
Charities
Conference.**

The annual conference of the Association of Catholic Charities of New York city was held in the Catholic club on April 18. The association was formed four years ago to interest Catholic women of New York in charitable work of the church. Since its organization the field has broadened and as was said by the Rev. D. J. McMahon who presided, "it stands to-day more of a federation of Catholic charities, a clearing house where every woman's association of Catholic charity may come in order to obtain rulings, in order that their work may be supplemented, guided and aided by that of the different organizations connected with the association."

In opening the conference, Mrs. Joseph R. O'Donohue, the president of the association, outlined some of the work that was planned for the year. It was hoped, she said, that at least six new nurseries would be added, two downtown girls' clubs, four or five settlement auxiliaries to the St. Vincent de Paul Conference and further provisions for aiding discharged prisoners.

Judge Morgan J. O'Brien in speaking of the practical work that the association is doing said that "in the present age and time, and in the cities where the future of the race is to be fought out, there should be a development of that

principle which is the distinguishing difference (charity) between a pagan and a Christian civilization. If we do not carry forward that principle we have failed to recognize that the obligation which we owe to the ages that are to follow has been lost sight of and obscured. * * * Now in our city there is special need of this great work. The whole civilization of the future is to be the product of the city. We have here the need of those who are willing from their abundance and from their good nature and from their love of their kind to give what they can to make the world better and it will never do for any of us to stand idly by and say we have not the time nor the inclination nor the ability."

M. J. Scanlan spoke of the important work that the association has done in aiding the St. Vincent de Paul Society in fitting up the Spring Valley summer home for children and the convalescent home. Elbridge T. Gerry drew an interesting analogy between child saving and hospital work. The first thing to do in both cases he said is to take the patient away from the contagion—one from the presence of physical contagion, the other from moral contagion. With the removal to the hospital or institution follows the placing in the proper ward or grade where treatment is administered to bring about a cure. Recollect that the motto of the hospital is *corpus sanare*, "cure the body." The motto of a reformatory is *animum salvere*, "save the soul"—combine the two and I give you a motto which you can well engrave upon your banners as the essence of child saving work."

Archbishop Farley spoke of the important work that the association had accomplished during its short existence and said that "its numbers that have now mounted into the hundreds should mount into the thousands."

**Far-Reaching
Charity.**

Twenty-three years ago the Hebrew Benevolent Association of New York, among other benefactions, assisted a widow with two small children to reach a western city where she hoped to better her condition. The little family was

given food and shelter while in New York and transportation was furnished to the new home. The cost of food, clothing and car fare was entered in the association's books along with other amounts given for similar purposes and there the matter was thought to end.

A few weeks ago the following letter was received at the United Charities Building:

HEBREW BENEVOLENT ASSOCIATION,
East 8th St., New York.

Gentlemen:—I hereby request of your association to advise me by return mail of the amount of the expenses you provided for — and her two children when your association took care of her and furnished her with transportation to —, which was in March, 1883, so that I may repay your association some of the money you were out for your noble work when she was badly in need of your assistance.

The writer, now a prosperous western merchant, is the son of the woman aided twenty-three years ago by the Hebrew Benevolent Association. Here is far reaching charity indeed.

Conference
on Fresh Air
and Hospital
Work.

A "fresh air" conference, called by the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, brought together last week fifty New York societies that provide summer outings for children. Dr. L. R. Williams of the Presbyterian Hospital, medical chief of the A. I. C. P. hospital for tuberculous children at Sea Breeze, Coney Island, presided.

Health Commissioner Darlington spoke on the vital importance of fresh air for old and young, in summer or in winter:

There are few essentials to good health, and chief among them are fresh air, sunlight, good food and rest. Since 400 B. C., people have been trying to cure consumption. Fifteen years ago it was learned that fresh air will cure three-quarters of the cases, with good food, rest and light, and it is the same with almost all infectious diseases.

Robert Hunter has recently collected statistics regarding breakfastless children in New York. He has found a great number of such children, but a large majority did not care to eat because they had no appetite after spending a night in a closed, stuffy room.

With the coming of warm weather the death rate from consumption falls. In winter it rises again because the one thing needful—fresh air—has been kept from the houses.

Dr. Darlington said that the best way for the various fresh air societies to help the department of health was to preach the gospel of fresh air for summer and winter and thus get the vital importance of the question before the people.

Dr. Waters of the department of health clinic said that the number of children in the public schools infected with pulmonary tuberculosis is a menace to the healthy:

A great deal could be done during the summer; but to do the work properly there should be a home where tuberculous children alone would be received. In winter there should be special schools or at least special rooms set aside for such cases. If the disease is detected early enough, the children should be put under conditions where they will have an opportunity for recovery; if they cannot get well, they certainly ought not to be in school with healthy children.

Dr. Cronin, also of the department of health, told about the abnormal children of the public schools, who from some physical or mental defect seemed either totally unable to learn or very deficient in capability. He spoke of the work in a New York school where the children thus affected are placed in graded classes and advanced as they improved. He advocated a home where these children could be sent for the summer months and given proper care under competent teachers and doctors.

Dr. Crampton of the department of education said that the teachers' work could be greatly facilitated if they knew where they could place the children during the coming summer. He suggested that the school teachers now on leaves of absence because of pulmonary trouble, be placed in charge of the tubercular children who are now taught in the same rooms with the healthy.

Dr. L. E. LeFetra declared that many babies are taken on day parties or to distant points to summer hospitals that might better be given rest, nourishment and fresh air at home, or preferably on the recreation piers, every one of which should have in connection with the board of health clinic a section reserved for sick babies needing quiet, permitting proper care. Dr. S. T. Armstrong, superintendent of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, said that their hospitals had sent away last year some eighty children and adults,

but he was convinced that there was a demand from the city hospitals not only for numerous private fresh air homes, but for a large convalescent hospital provided for by the seaside park bill now waiting the mayor's signature. At the instance of A. A. Hill of the Metropolitan Parks Association, a resolution was passed by the conference urging the mayor to sign the seaside park bill.

Another speaker was John Spargo of Prospect House, Yonkers, who said that there had never been a time when men and women were thinking so earnestly about the welfare of the children. Mr. Spargo spoke of the German system which cares for the sick children in country school sanatoria which are a part of the regular school system. In Norway the city child is placed in the country and the country child is given a few weeks of city life, that both may become acquainted with the different modes of living. The time is surely coming in this country when we will have a sane system of school life.

Olive M. Jones, principal of school No. 120, the new school for truants and incorrigibles, under Miss Richman, district superintendent, said that a great difficulty experienced by teachers is that they do not know where to place children who should be sent away for a short time during the summer. Another evil, she said, is "repeating," by which some boys are given outings by three or four different institutions during a single summer. To obviate this difficulty she moved (1) that a bureau of application be established composed of representatives of different fresh air agencies and the public schools to maintain a card catalogue system for the use of all interested, and (2) that fresh air agencies communicate with public school principals during May and June to discover children in need of outings. The motion was unanimously adopted. A second meeting will be called.

Notes of the Week

U. O. S. Conference, New York.—The March conference of the Charity Organization Society of New York was held in the United Charities Building on April 18. Flor-

ence Kelley spoke on the sixty hour labor law for women, and the project of a hotel for women wage earners was discussed by Mrs. Clarence Burns and Miss A. C. Smith.

Training for Social Work.—At the one session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, which is assigned to the committee on training for social work (Monday, May 14, at three o'clock), there will not be any long, formal addresses, but a discussion of the following topics:

(1) Relation of the universities to the schools of philanthropy, etc. Discussion opened by Frank A. Fetter, Professor of Political Economy and Finance, Cornell University.

(2) What qualifications for social work should be emphasized? Discussion opened by James F. Jackson, superintendent of the Associated Charities of Cleveland, Ohio.

(3) Correlation between class instruction and practical field work. Discussion opened by Zilpha D. Smith, School for Social Workers, Boston.

This early notice is given by the committee in charge of the meeting in the hope that persons interested in the topics will consider them, and plan to come to the meeting.

Procession and Possession.—"Procession" and "possession" may look similar to the linotype man, but the meanings they convey do not correspond. In the third line of the last verse of *The Children*, published in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS for April 14, procession, not possession should have been used.

Hebrew Orphan Asylum Proposed.—The Ladies' Hebrew Orphan Society of New Haven has been incorporated and will establish an asylum for the Jewish children of that city. About 250 Hebrew women of New Haven belong to the society.

Chicago Jewish Orphan Asylum.—The Marks Nathan Jewish Orphan Asylum, to accommodate 150 children, will be opened in Chicago in a few weeks. It is named for the late Marks Nathan, a Chicago pioneer who bequeathed \$15,000 towards the erection of the home. An additional \$25,000 has been raised to complete the structure. The officers are, Jacob Levy, president; Joseph Rothschild, vice-president; David Sternberg, treasurer; Julius Jaffe, secretary.

Superintendent for Maryland School for Blind.—George C. Morrison, for two years past superintendent of the Maryland School for the Blind in Baltimore, has resigned his position to take effect on May 1. John F. Bledsoe, the present assistant superintendent, has been appointed in his place. Mr. Bledsoe has been principal of the Maryland School for the Colored Blind and Deaf and previously taught for five years in the Alabama School for the Deaf at Talladega, Ala.

San Francisco and the Relief Work Ahead

Archibald A. Hill

Secretary of the Slocum Relief Committee of 1905

The disaster which befell San Francisco on Wednesday, April 18, at 5:15 a. m., is so vast that it is difficult to grasp its full significance. As late as Saturday afternoon the Associated Press was unable to state whether certain districts containing many hundreds of houses were or were not burned, as no one could verify the stories. A fire covering one such area would at ordinary times be considered a great conflagration. We know that before the flames burned themselves out every theatre had been burned, every bank save one, every hotel, and in the business district only three buildings remained intact. If there were many bodies in the ruins of the houses shaken down by the earthquake, then the number of the dead will never be known exactly.

But it is not upon San Francisco only that the hand of the earthquake fell. Governor Pardee telegraphs that about one-fifteenth of the entire state was affected. The property loss outside of San Francisco is estimated roughly at above \$50,000,000, and the loss of life at the same figure as that in San Francisco. It must be borne in mind however that the outlying towns have been exceedingly hard to communicate with and the figures may fall far short of the actualities.

But the reports of the property loss and even the numbers of the dead do not depict in any accurate sense the extent of the disaster. San Francisco has been a great city and in recent years an exceedingly busy and prosperous one, with a population of more than 400,000 people. Of these it is said that at least three-fourths are without shelter, food, clothing, or drink. Add to this the nervous strain of the three days and the fact that all of the implements by which each life is ordinarily preserved have been swept away and then, only then, can we gain even an inkling of the situation. Money,

position, influence counted for naught in this time. One of the wealthiest men in the country had a friend in San Francisco who lost everything, and yet could not reach him because this friend was only a unit in the 300,000 human beings in like condition.

A comparison of this fire with that of Chicago shows that Chicago's property loss was estimated at \$192,000,000, while California's loss is placed at more than \$250,000,000. The loss of life in Chicago was placed at about 300, while in San Francisco alone conservative estimates have been that 500 met death. The Chicago fire left 98,500 persons homeless; 300,000 in San Francisco alone are homeless. The catastrophe is unprecedented in this country in the amount of property destroyed, the area affected, the number rendered homeless, and in the distance from the great commercial centers.

The Nation's Response

Such rough facts explain the response of the nation and of the world to the need for help. At the outset, before the extent of the loss was known San Francisco bravely thought it could meet its own needs. Within five hours Mayor Schmitz appointed a committee of safety which in turn appointed a finance committee and the people of San Francisco themselves were the first to subscribe to the relief fund. Indeed, there is an unconfirmed statement that one San Franciscan subscribed the sum of \$3,000,000. But the realization came quickly that San Francisco could not cope with this vast burden unhelped. The nation was not willing that one city should bear its burden alone. Before he could get into communication with the War Department, General Funston began the work of relief and furnished stores, tents, and what drugs there were at hand. Congress followed with an appropriation of \$1,000,000 which was expended in less

than three days, and a second million and a half has now been granted. Every city, and every town one may well say, has started a relief fund—chambers of commerce, boards of trade, the fraternal organizations, the theatres, trade organizations, the churches. Men and firms who usually give, even to great relief funds, only one hundred dollars, have in this instance given one thousand or more.¹

The sum subscribed up to Monday night, including the amount from congress, was approximately \$12,000,000.

In San Francisco the local committee of safety promptly set to work to meet the most pressing needs. It is said that San Francisco never contained more than three days' supply of food. But this was when all her warehouses and wholesale stores were in operation. These have however been entirely destroyed, but the stocks of retail stores which were not burned were promptly taken over by the committee and held for equal distribution to all the hungry. The incoming relief trains were also similarly treated. This committee established three "concentration camps" in the Presidio, the Golden Gate Park, and at Fort Mason, all in the northern section of the city. In addition to these, the committee also established numerous depots for the distribution of food, and a bureau of registration for the living in order that they may be located by friends.

**National
Organization
of Relief.**

Of the permanent work of relief in the stricken districts, it is too early at this writing to state definitely.

That San Francisco people, individually and through existing and emergency organizations have responded energetically to the call of the hour, the press dispatches bear ample witness. The same spirit which prompted the president to uphold and supplement with federal troops the local authorities in maintaining law in the face of a shattered civil order, prompted him to turn to some national channel as an adequate and co-

ordinating agency in forwarding the many contributions which the people of the country would send, to represent the government in its part of the work, and to be a center of information as to needs wherever found and as to relief however distributed. The agency turned to, therefore, has been the American National Red Cross which is chartered by Congress and which by an act passed in January, 1905, was re-incorporated under government auspices. Its president is William H. Taft, secretary of war and the surgeon general of the army is chairman of the central committee. There are branches in several states, including California. The stated objects of the Red Cross are to "furnish volunteer aid to the sick and wounded in time of war," and to furnish relief in time of peace, on occasion of "pestilence, famine, fire, floods, and other great national calamities." Edward T. Devine, general secretary of the New York Charity Organization Society, was designated as special representative of the National Red Cross to act under the direction of Secretary Taft and to co-operate with Mayor Schmitz, Gen. Funston and the local committees already at work. Dr. Devine is also a member of the New York executive committee and as their special agent on the field will report to the Mayor's committee. He has made a study of relief funds and their distribution in every great calamity of recent years in America and was actively engaged in the work of the Slocum Relief Committee, two years ago in New York. He started west on April 19. In Chicago he was joined by Ernest P. Bicknell, general superintendent of the Chicago Bureau of Charities, who goes as the special representative of the Chicago relief funds. The Massachusetts organization sent Miss Alice L. Higgins, general secretary of the Boston Associated Charities, John F. Moors, Miss Bertha Freeman and Mr. Seabury. Miss Lucile Eaves, formerly headworker of South Park Settlement, San Francisco, has been sent as a representative also of the New York State Red Cross.

¹In New York one who preferred to be known only as "A Friend of Humanity," handed to Mayor McCallan twenty-five one thousand dollar gold certificates. Up to Saturday noon there had been in New York three subscriptions of \$100,000 each, and one of \$200,000.

**Response
Throughout
the Country.**

The responses to the reports from San Francisco have been marked not only by generous giving throughout the country, but by a sanity and purposefulness, rather than hysteria in the various meetings held throughout the country, and the plans for helpfulness. There is great need for active, aggressive organization of the method of obtaining the funds. Money should be collected systematically and carefully, in order that the proper amount may be secured and in order also that every dollar contributed may actually reach the field of need, and with as little expense for administration as possible.

In New York City, Mayor McClellan appointed a committee of one hundred well-known citizens. Of this committee Robert W. de Forest is chairman, Robert W. Hebbard, secretary, and Jacob H. Schiff, treasurer. An executive committee will actively manage the campaign for subscriptions. With this body are acting in concert the committee of the Chamber of Commerce and other associations. Even the Chinese merchants of Mott and Pell street turned in their contribution through this general channel. Complete co-operation between the mayor's committee and the Red Cross has been effected. New York contributions should be sent to Jacob H. Schiff, 52 William street, treasurer. Banks, trust companies and department stores are depositories for such funds. The New York executive committee adopted the rule that all funds should be distributed through local committees so far as practicable.

It was announced on Sunday in Chicago that of the \$1,000,000 set by Mayor Dunne as the amount to be contributed by that city, \$373,645 had already been raised.

Boston and the rest of Massachusetts has decided to raise \$3,000,000, and at a mass meeting in Faneuil Hall on Monday it was announced that \$425,000 had been contributed to date.

In addition the Massachusetts militia will loan, if needed, 1,000 wall tents, 2,000 shelter tents and 500 blankets. Philadelphia had already on April 22,

forwarded \$75,000 to San Francisco and in addition to this amount the Permanent Relief Committee sent \$100,000 to Gov. Pardee and \$25,000 to the mayor of Tacoma for the purchase of supplies. The finance committee of Councils also appropriated \$100,000 for the sufferers.

The Pittsburg Relief Committee announced that it had raised \$285,000, including \$20,000 contributed by the Carnegie Steel Corporation, but not including the \$25,000 donated by the Carnegie Hero Fund. The Carnegie Hero Fund had made arrangements to land \$25,000 worth of supplies at San Francisco harbor on Tuesday night and Wednesday morning. This makes the total subscription of this fund \$50,000.

A meeting in Baltimore on Saturday under the auspices of the Red Cross resulted in the collection of \$50,000 for the fund. The cities of Duluth, Minn., and Superior have combined in the contribution of \$25,000, while fraternal societies in Toronto, Canada, have forwarded \$26,000.

Minneapolis has raised over \$50,000; Cleveland \$50,000; Newark more than \$20,000. Indianapolis will give not less than \$200,000; Kansas City, \$30,000. Probably \$50,000 more will be subscribed and \$25,000 additional from benefit entertainments. Relief trains have been sent from Los Angeles, Denver, Portland, Seattle, Boston, Philadelphia and other large cities.

**The
Relief
Problem.**

The relief problem as seen from a distance divides itself into the immediate and the permanent. The immediate need is to secure food, clothing, shelter and sanitation for a host of 300,000. When one considers the work it was to clothe, to shelter, and to provide sanitary conveniences for an army of 300,000 strong, able-bodied young men, as was the case in our war, there is realization of the size of this peace task of doing for an army of men, women and children who have been through the ordeal of these last days. The problem of securing an adequate supply of drinking water has been met ere this. By noon on Saturday the relief trains were arriving from

the nearest uninjured towns, but it must be remembered that while fire stricken Chicago was most centrally located, San Francisco is far removed from the great cities of the country, and food and clothing has to be shipped great distances. The Southern Pacific, under orders of President Harriman, and other railroads are giving the right of way to trains carrying relief supplies, and are using express cars in order that greater speed may be made. The problem of immediate shelter is more difficult than that of food, and has been aggravated by the rains of Sunday. But all available army tents are being hurried to the scene. By noon of Tuesday, eight temporary shacks had been erected in Golden Gate Park, and were so arranged that each room could be occupied by a family in comparative privacy.

The most difficult immediate problem is that of sanitation. In as much as the water mains burst and the ground was opened by great crevasses it is reasonable to suppose that the sewer system is badly crippled, although the outlets are said to be intact. In addition here are hundreds of thousands of people herded into three camps which had at most, sanitary appliances for not more than 5,000 people. There are also many unburied bodies, and the weather reports show the days warm and the nights cold.

In this immediate problem the question of the area of distribution must not be overlooked. It is not only in San Francisco that this prompt aid must be rendered. It must be given in Oakland, in San José in Berkeley—as far north as Tacoma, and south as Los Angeles. Not only is this true, but also, as the refugees leave the concentration camps and succeed in getting across the bay, they create

new areas of congestion and want. From a sanitary point of view this scattering is a great blessing, as not only can disease be better prevented but also if it breaks out can be confined to a smaller number.

The immediate problem is exacting enough. The future problem is even more difficult. Many weeks after the Chicago fire the Relief and Aid Society was still extending aid to 60,000 people or fully two-thirds of the number they aided at first. The building trades will certainly furnish opportunity for the skilled workman in that line, and the erection of temporary shacks and barracks will furnish work for even the less skilled. The clearing away of the debris will furnish work for the unskilled and physically strong members of the community. The census of 1900 showed that only 20 per cent of the adult male population of San Francisco was engaged as laborers and as members of the building and allied trades. But what shall be done for the other 80 per cent who have been clerks in stores and offices and professional men whose sedentary life has unfitted them for manual labor and who have no skill in mechanical pursuits? Or how shall help be given to the women clerks in stores, the small shop keepers and the salaried or professional classes? It must be prompt, adequate, and so given that it will carry with its receipt no sting of any kind. It must be rendered in such a way that it will be received gladly but in the spirit of the splendid courage already shown by the people of California. For their great courage and their generosity to their own has been marvellous.¹

¹In this article no account has been taken of the ways of meeting this last problem, nor of the problem of rebuilding the city. These will be treated later.

Treatment of the Delinquent

North Carolina's Convict Camps. There are twenty-two county convict camps in North Carolina. The annual report of the board of public charities of that state commends the work that is being carried on, and states that the open air life with plenty of labor produces much better results than idle confinement in jails.

During the year corporal punishment was reported in several of the camps, and in one case it was said that a convict's death resulted from the effects of a whipping. The laws of North Carolina do not prohibit corporal punishment in the prisons, and in view of this fact it is proposed that a general law be framed regulating the punishment of county convicts. A movement has also been inaugurated to obtain juvenile courts and an effective probation system in the state.

The Graded System in Tennessee. The graded system was adopted in the penitentiaries of Tennessee in the fall of 1902. Three grades are maintained for all prisoners—the upper, middle and lower. Upon commitment each prisoner is assigned to the middle grade.

In the report of the prison commissioners it is said that nothing introduced in the government of the inmates has been productive of so much good in their discipline and control as the enforcement of this system.

The report reads: "It has not only been productive of better conduct but better labor in the institution. The inmates take pride in attaining the upper grade. In the breast of every prisoner there is the hope of pardon. Each prisoner knows that if his conduct is such as entitles him to be in the upper grade, his papers filed for pardon will be more favorably considered than if his conduct placed him in the middle grade, and that if his conduct places him in a lower grade, he knows that all applications for pardon would be refused by the advisory board of pardons."

Crime in New York County. The recently issued report of the chief clerk of the district attorney's office in New York county shows that there has been no marked increase of crime during the past four years. During 1905, 2,490 persons were convicted as against 2,466 for 1904. Considering that New York county has a population of about 2,500,000, the ratio of convictions is small.

Since 1901, 20,228 cases were disposed of in the court of general sessions and grand jury. Of this number, 16,228 were indictments, 9,787 of which resulted in convictions. During the same time 30,369 actions were prosecuted by representatives of the district attorney, so that the total number presented and disposed of in both courts was 50,597, an average of 12,650 a year. The population of the city prison has been kept down to a daily

average of 183 persons, while the average number in previous years was between 225 and 250.

Politics and Public Institutions.

The *Boston Transcript* in an editorial on *Politics and Public Institutions*, comments on the general drift towards a divorce of partisanship from institutional management. As an example of the old alliance between party and institutional administration as shown by recent inquiry, the relation between the Missouri state prison at Jefferson City and state politics is cited. Continuing, the *Transcript* says:

"Recognition of the fact that public institutions aren't legitimate spoils of party victory is making steady headway. The policy which Governor Hanly enunciates for Indiana has already been adopted, either in whole or in fraction, in a considerable number of progressive commonwealths. The twentieth century theory that a state institution can render better service to the party in power by exhibiting high efficiency in administration than by providing a roosting place for lame political ducks is based on sound philosophy, involves higher conceptions of public service and tends to promote scientific management.

"The establishment of a policy of non-partisan administration of institutions in one state after another has progressed so quietly and has made so little fuss that few people are aware of the extent of the movement or have grasped the significance of it."

Children's Courts.

Congress has recently authorized the printing of a new edition of the report on *Children's Courts in the United States*. This report was prepared and edited by S. J. Barrows for the International Prison Commission and has been distributed widely in this country and abroad. The increased demand for it shows the interest that has been awakened in this subject. The new edition which will shortly be issued will contain a compilation by Helen Page Bates, Ph.D., of the state library, Albany, of laws in the different states relating to juvenile courts, revised to November 1, 1905. Those desiring copies of the report may address the U. S. Commissioner, S. J. Barrows, 135 East 15th street, New York city.

Reformatory Bill in New Jersey.

The agitation for a woman's reformatory in New Jersey promises good results. The measure defeated last year in the Assembly for no apparent reason, was again introduced this winter. People the state over have been working for its passage and recently the house passed the measure. The friends of the movement expect favorable results from the Senate.

Convicts' Prison Association.

An organization to be known as the Prison Association has been formed among the convicts at Pratt Mines, Ala.

The objects of the association are "to maintain perfect discipline in the prisons among the men and provide means of progress and advancement along the lines of study and better morals." The membership numbers sixty-five men. A secretary is in correspondence with other prisons throughout the country in order to get in touch with ideas for the advancement of prison life.

Colorado Prison Association.

The eighth annual report of the Colorado Prison Association has been issued. The object of the association, as stated by the president, Henry V. Johnson, is "to look after the welfare and the reform, if possible, of some portion at least of this vast number of criminals who are turned out of our penitentiaries and reformatories each year; to secure for them, if possible, some position where they can obtain a livelihood, and so prevent them from being driven into a criminal life again by want, necessity and privation."

During 1905, 106 persons were aided in getting a start in life after discharge from prison, and 200 ex-convicts were assisted in securing positions.

Probation in Massachusetts.

The report of the Massachusetts prison commissioners shows an increased use of the probation system during the past year. For the year ending in September, 1905, the number of cases taken on probation in the police, municipal and district courts was 9,418, an increase of 628 over the previous twelve months. In the superior courts, 1,454 probation cases were reported, an increase of 52.

To go back to 1895 for a further compari-

son of figures. In that year there were 5,427 cases taken on probation in the lower courts, and 525 in the superior courts; there were 51,626 statements of persons arrested for drunkenness and referred to probation officers. Ten years later the number of such statements was 63,224. In 1895, 11,381 special investigations were ordered by the court, outside of the inquiries made as a matter of course under the law, while in 1905 the number of such investigations was 25,331. These figures seem to indicate that the courts are disposed to extend the probation work as far as practicable.

An important change was made during the year regarding the work of probation officers. According to the new law, an officer is permitted to release a person charged with drunkenness if he has not been arrested more than twice during the preceding year. 7,280 persons were released under this regulation. There seems to be a diversity of opinion among the probation officers themselves regarding the utility of the measure, but the majority hold that it is an exceedingly useful feature of the probation system, and it is a great relief to the work of the courts.

A Lecture Bureau for Colorado Prisoners.

W. E. Collett, general secretary of the Colorado Prison Association, has established a lecture bureau for the benefit of the prisoners in the state penitentiary at Canon City and the state reformatory at Buena Vista. Chancellor Buchtel of the University of Denver spoke recently at Buena Vista on *Theodore Roosevelt*. Other speakers will be Mrs. Liska S. Churchill of Denver on *The Human Interest*; Rev. F. T. Bayley of Denver on *Some of the Mysteries of Common Things*; Rabbi Friedman of Denver, on *Our Associates*; and Mrs. Scott Saxton of Denver. It is Mr. Collett's intention to make this course a permanent feature of the association.

Neighborhood Work

Permanent Value of Settlement Work.

In the annual report of the East Side House, New York, Everett P. Wheeler, the president, dwells on the permanent value of settlement work in general. He writes:

"There has been much discussion during the year as to whether the settlement is an instrument of permanent value, or in other words, whether it has come to stay. Those who maintain that it has not, overlook the fundamental idea of a settlement. It is a home in an industrial centre, where employers and employed, educated and uneducated, rich and poor, can meet on friendly terms, come to an understanding of the human element that vitalizes them all and so remove the narrow prejudices that ignorance begets, and that keep men asunder.

The settlement has for its fundamental basis the fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of man. These are eternal. As long as the world lasts we may therefore expect to see settlements at work.

Alterations at Jacob A. Riis House.

With the last payment made on the mortgage of the Jacob A. Riis Settlement, New York, the work of remodeling the buildings on Henry street has commenced. Hardwood floors will be laid, new plumbing will be installed, and partitions will be removed from the first and second floors to provide better accommodations for public meetings. Although a gymnasium is not assured, the alterations in the basement will be made with the idea that in time that portion of the building will be used for that purpose.

Hull House Nurse.

To defray the expenses of a trained nurse who will be a resident of Hull House and devote her time to that district, the Hull House Woman's Club voted to raise the monthly dues from fifteen to twenty-five cents. The nurse will respond to calls at all hours of the day and night. The action was taken after considerable discussion in the club, during which one woman insisted that a section which could support so many saloons ought to be able to take care of its own sick, but most of the members recognized the crying need of a resident nurse in the district. The sum of \$100 has been donated toward the fund by Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen, vice-president of the club, and the nurse will go to work before summer begins.

The Recital of the Music School Settlement.

Under the direction of David Mannes, a recital was given by the members of the New York Music School Settlement in Mendelssohn Hall, Thursday afternoon, April 19. The orchestra, consisting of about fifty young boys and girls all under twenty years of age, and some not over seven, first rendered Haydn's *Symphony in G Major*. This was played with much feeling and understanding. All the members of the orchestra were pupils of Mr. Mannes with the exception of a few professionals on wind instruments and double basses. Miss Clara Weiss, a young girl not over seventeen, played two movements on the piano from Mendelssohn's *Concerto in D Minor* with the whole orchestra accompanying her. Both movements were played without notes with skill and simplicity. Two very little people, one a girl of five or six, the other a boy of seven, won a great deal of admiration by playing Gurlitt's *March* and Mozart's *Fantasia in D Minor*. Their feet were far from the pedals but they sat there undaunted, alone on the stage, and did justice to both pieces.

The junior orchestra, consisting of the younger boys and girls, gave Mozart's *First Movement from Quartet in G Major*. They were led by a young girl, Miss Emilie Wagner, who has been under the instruction of Mr. Mannes for some time and has now risen to the position of teacher in the settlement. The second part of the program opened with five charming songs sung by Mrs. Francis Wellman (formerly Emma Juch), with Mr. Luckstone at the piano.

Of the remaining numbers Goltermann's *Adagio from Concerto* for violincello, played by Lief Rosenmann and Bach's *First Movement from Concerto in E Major*, rendered on the violin by Marya Schwartz and accompanied by the entire orchestra, deserve special mention. One could not help but notice the marked simplicity in manner and attire of the students and, at the same time, their self control and command of their instruments. Six solo violins, the entire string orchestra and the organ gave the *Prelude to the Deluge*, Saint-Saens, magnificently and at the close, the orchestra, with Mr. Mannes

leading them on the violin, and the organ thrilling one through and through, played two stanzas of America. Each little artist played with a spirit that promises well for these future citizens of ours.

A New Minneapolis Settlement.

Through the generosity of the Pillsbury family of Minneapolis, work has been commenced on a new \$40,000 settlement house in that city. Excavations for the building are now being made at 16th avenue and 4th street. It will be a three-story structure. The first floor will be taken up by a club room, reception room, library, sewing room and an auditorium with a seating capacity of 300. The second floor will have nursery play rooms, dining room, kitchen, cooking school and gymnasium. The upper floor will be used for residents' living rooms.

New East Side Settlement in New York.

The old Germania assembly rooms on New York's East Side, an important center in the life of that section previous to the passing of the Schuetzen Bund and the Liedertafel, has been purchased by the New York East Conference of the Methodist Episcopal church. The hall will be used as a mission settlement, which when completed, will consist of a number of buildings to be known as the Wesley Mission buildings. There will be chapels for different nationalities with native pastors in charge, besides social and educational work.

To Investigate Midwifery in New York.

The Association of Neighborhood Workers will soon undertake an investigation of midwifery as practised in New York. A friend of Union Settlement has given to Gaylord S. White, its head worker, a sum sufficient to make the investigation possible. Mr. White has placed the work in the hands of the committee on public health of the Association of Neighborhood Workers through its committee, and with the co-operation of the different settlements it is expected that valuable results will be obtained. Miss F. Elizabeth Crowell, at present a pupil in the School of Philanthropy, who has had practical experience in hospital work, will devote some months to a personal investigation. It is the purpose of the association to carry forward its investigation from a social standpoint. It is realized that some graduate midwives render services which could not be easily dispensed with in those districts whose inhabitants have been accustomed to midwifery in their European homes. Yet there is little or no regulation of midwifery in New York State and as result ignorant practitioners are the cause of a great deal of suffering and death. The most definite survey of conditions as to this matter available at present is a study undertaken by Ralph Folks for the New York Charity Organization Society and published in CHARITIES for November, 1902. It showed the need for a more rational treatment of the situation.

The Lincoln House Association of Boston reports that over 550 members have taken an active interest in the twenty clubs and forty-seven classes carried on at 80 Emerald street during the year.

The work begins in a kindergarten preparatory to the public schools. Graduates of the kindergarten enter the Saturday morning clubs, where they receive simple manual training. They continue in these clubs until ten years of age, when they are admitted to the regular manual training classes and the gymnasium. Drawing, printing, clay-modelling and sloyd are taught the boys, while the girls are instructed in needlework, cooking, laundry, drawing and basket-weaving. Three years' good work in any subject entitles a boy or girl to a diploma, and after a year's good work in a training class any boy who is thirteen years of age or more may become a member of the Handicraft Guild, whose objects are stated to be "the advancement of Lincoln House, the encouragement of good workmanship and the promotion of fraternal relations among its members." After the boys reach the age of thirteen they join one of the social clubs which meet weekly in Lincoln House. Four girls' clubs are maintained, and the Mothers' Club last year numbered 88 members.

The association maintains two cottages at Osterville on Cape Cod during the summer. Last summer 239 persons—about one-fourth of the membership of the clubs and classes—were guests of the association at the seashore for eleven days. Invitations to the younger members are awarded on a basis of good work and attendance during the year.

How effective settlement work can be is shown by the progress of the movement recently inaugurated by a club in the University Settlement of New York to drive out the

antiquated horse cars operating on the East Side.

The young men of this club made up their minds that these unsanitary cars jammed with people at all rush hours and then slowly hauled at irregular intervals over broken "hump" rails were unhealthy, inadequate and altogether intolerable. They protested to the State Railroad Commission, obtained a public hearing, collected evidence, sent protests to the press and obtained the co-operation of prominent East Side citizens.

At the public hearing on the compulsory abolition of the horse cars, they told of the fume of the cars, the slowness of the service and the poor equipment. It was shown that the congestion of population on the lower East Side of Manhattan with all its attendant evils of unhealthfulness and un-American characteristics was due at least in part to transportation conditions. If the time taken to cross town could be cut by one-half or two-thirds, the transfer to lines running north or across the new East River bridge to Brooklyn would allow the 600,000 people of this quarter to spread out over a much larger area and still enable them to live within a reasonable time distance from their work. Electrification, it was contended, would accomplish this and incidentally compel rebuilding and proper equipping of the lines.

The people of the East Side are largely foreign-born and have been submissive, but some of them have now found voice and the result is the ordering by the State Railroad Commission of the electrification at the earliest possible date of four downtown lines and of two others further up. The commission has also ordered through their "recommendations" to the company, various measures for the immediate betterment of the service. These include more cars, lights, cleaning, ventilation, heating and repairs to roadbed.

Communications

An Undeveloped Field in Medical Education

E. B. Foote, Jr., M. D.

On page 859 of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, the medical superintendent of the Craig Colony for Epileptics tells of an application for the admission of *five children of one family* now in some children's home, and he uses this to prove the need of more accommodations for the many of this class still unprovided for. But this writer makes no suggestion of what might be done to limit the future production of these unfortunate "unfits." When a family has produced two epileptics it would seem that it might be well at least to *advise* them to breed no

more, and it is even supposable that the state might some day go so far as to require this.

In the next article, Prof. A. H. N. Baron, does not urge "compulsory eugenics," but advocates that we at least recommend or advise candidates for matrimony as to their fitness or preparedness for this important step. He thinks a state medical office or commission composed of "competent specialists" could be well employed in advising concerning fitness of individuals for marriage and parentage, and it is certainly none too soon to talk this up and make way for it. But where shall we look for the facts and experiences on which to have a science of eugenics, and where are the competents to instruct or advise as to fitness for marriage? Could a board be now appointed or the men found who would have been able to tell the

parents of the five epileptics that they were not fit for marriage or parentage? And is not a great opportunity being lost to make a study of the history of that family with a view to discovering, if possible, the status, habits or conditions that were causative of such a bad experiment in parentage?

What is first needed is a society for collective investigation of facts with a view to learning how such evils may be avoided at the source. Possibly the Society of Moral and Sanitary Prophylaxis could expand its purposes to cover this need, but it already has a large contract. It is time to make widely known the fact that we have not as yet one medical college with a chair, a series of lectures or even one yearly discourse on this matter of fitness for marriage and parentage (eugenics), and, furthermore, we have almost no literature. Naturally the people will be looking to the medical profession some day for knowledge along this line, and they will find it remarkably deficient, unless a beginning be soon made. The only real text-book on the subject now available is well worth mentioning, "Health and Disease in Relation to Marriage and the Married State," a manual by many authors, edited by Drs. H. Senator and S. Kaminer, in two volumes, translated from the German. I doubt that it is in the hands of one per cent. of the physicians who need its information.

Since I graduated, twenty-five years ago, the professorships have grown from twelve to forty-eight, and the time required from two to four years, and more and more is being expected of the medical student; but the time is sure to come when a chair of eugenics will be considered an essential, as well as some library shelves set aside for accumulation of the literature that is to be. If this be not a "long felt want" it is surely a coming call, and the medical college that first responds to it will prove itself the wide-awake, up-to-date institution of advanced science. When the people (in the state government) make a call for the commission of competent specialists it is to be hoped that there will be some progressive medical college ready to say: "We have been preparing for this, we can offer you the competents; or at least the graduates, who have made a special study of anthropology, eugenics and sociology, and they are ready to practicalize their knowledge and make it useful to the state." What we need, in short, are a few Burbanks for the human kind and a few college courses that shall tend to their production.

The Physician's Culpability

Ferd. C. Valentine

President American Urological Assn.

IN CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS for March 10, Albert H. N. Baron, Esq., fellow of

Clark university, most ably discusses some features of the work of the Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis. His enthusiasm, however, causes his pen to slip into several grave charges against the medical profession, which ought not remain unrefuted. Mr. Baron says: "When the medical profession presumes to cast stones at people generally for their utter neglect, studied ignorance, and tabooing of the subject, it should make sure first that its own position is unassailable."

Students of venereal diseases, as physicians quite properly call themselves, when reviewing all that has been and is being written for the benefit of the public, express astonishment that people generally so utterly neglect, so studiously ignore and taboo the subject of misdirection and abuse of the genic impulse. Deploing this fact is not "presuming to cast stones at people generally." It is evidence, rather, of a wish to arouse people from their lethargy regarding this transcendently important subject.

Mr. Baron further says: "If it is true, as is repeatedly stated by the writers, that the extent and danger of venereal diseases have been long and thoroughly known to the medical profession, physicians must acknowledge their part of the blame for being accessory to the 'conspiracy of silence'—no matter what the reason—on a question of such vital importance."

Had Mr. Baron investigated the part of physicians in the "conspiracy of silence" in which he accuses them as being accessory, he would have refrained from making this charge. My library by no means contains the largest collection of books, pamphlets and reprints of information to the public on venereal diseases, written by reputable physicians; still, a conservative estimate of their number places them at not less than 500 titles. Assuming that but 1,000 copies of each were printed and distributed, this would yield half a million efforts to persuade people to protect themselves, their families and the state from the ravages of venereal diseases. Can Mr. Baron, even on this small estimate, consistently charge physicians with being accessory to the conspiracy of silence? As Mr. Baron does not seem to have gone very deeply into the work of physicians in this direction, it may be well to tell him that the underestimated number of copies were all published at the expense of the authors. Furthermore, every writer knew that the publication of such matter was a direct injury to his income. This injury is dual:

1. People are deterred from consulting a physician known to have specially studied venereal diseases, lest they be suspected of having a venereal disease because entering his door.

2. Enlightenment upon the dangers of venereal diseases, should, and to a certain extent, does exert a deterrent effect upon the

cause thereof and consequently reduces the number of those infected.

Mr. Baron, with that desire for fairness which doubtless underlies his writing, cannot, I am convinced, do otherwise than revise this part of his charges against the medical profession, now that the facts are offered him.

The remainder of Mr. Baron's grave accusations against physicians on the score of "belated attempts at atonement for the past sins of omission," fall from lack of support.

Near the conclusion of his excellent article Mr. Baron again pays his "compliments" to my colleagues: "But physicians, as a class, like other mortals, must look out for their own interests and it is probable that there are some mercenary or weak enough to fear that such a governmental establishment would injure their private practice." The sentence that follows emphasizes its predecessor.

Such a master of argument as is Mr. Baron must have known the effect those lines would have on the average reader. He must have known that the majority would therefore deduce that physicians as a class work to maintain public ignorance, lest public knowledge reduce their incomes. Had he given his utterances more consideration, it would have become evident to him that such, albeit inferential, aspersion, would have the effect upon many, of weakening whatever altruistic efforts physicians make for the public benefit.

It is not to attack Mr. Baron, whom I have not the honor of knowing, that I ask so much space. It is to persuade him and other able men like him, to further investigate the important question. Then his forceful pen will not be directed to belittling the efforts of medical men, who have much to lose and nothing to gain by the education of the public which they are constantly and persistently urging.

I take the liberty of asking Mr. Baron to write Dr. C. O. Probst, secretary of the Ohio state board of health, Columbus, for a copy of the *Bulletin* containing an address on the *Prevention of Venereal Diseases*, presented in January, 1906.

Education in Regard to Sexual Matters

Anna G. Richardson, M.D.¹

The discussion in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS of February 24 seems to me to lay too little stress on the education of mothers of young children.

Lyttelton's book, *Training of the Young in the Laws of Sex*,² which is in every respect excellent, gives the age when children must be taught, if unwise information is to be forestalled, as eight to eleven. This age would

¹Member of the staff of the Vincent Memorial Hospital and Trinity Dispensary, Boston, Mass.

²Edward Lyttelton. *Training of the young in the laws of sex*, 5th impression, 1901. Longmans, Green and Co., N. Y. Price \$1.00.]

of necessity exclude any class teaching, and demands that the teacher should be a parent, who in a large majority of cases will be the mother.

Rarely has a woman had a sufficiently thorough training in biology to be able to instruct her children, even if she conscientiously feels her responsibility. If she has had a few wise talks in her 'teens, the interval between this and her necessity of talking to her children is too long for a clear view of the subject to last.

The individuality of the child is such a large factor in the success of the teaching of this difficult subject that no book can make rules which will always apply.

It seems to me that the only way to bring about good results is along the line suggested by Dr. Seerley, of having expert instructors for mothers' classes. The classes should be small, so that discussion can be free, and the difficulties and individuality of the mother regarded as well as that of the child.

Such classes may grow naturally out of present associations, from the lunch clubs among the rich, to the mothers' meetings at day nurseries. I know of a fashionable private school at which a woman physician was asked to give a practical talk, first to the pupils and later to the mothers. It was received with such enthusiasm by the mothers that a committee was formed to discuss the possibility of making some practical use of the suggestions made.

Educated mothers and fathers will find in Lyttelton's book the very words they may use, and a strong plea also for healthy, sound teaching, based on instincts of reverence and home affection, to be given as soon as the child shows the natural curiosity as to the beginnings of life, which will be satisfied in some way,—a curiosity "which leads to the first teaching about maternity and generation being eagerly absorbed and firmly stamped upon the mind at its most receptive age." This serves as an effectual antidote to the stray and piecemeal information, given in evil words or acts, or in snickering secrecy, unhealthy mystery, which breeds distorted imaginations, and prompts to selfish indulgence.

The editor of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS finds the one encouraging note in what the physicians say in their confidence of curing the sexual diseases. (p. 712). Syphilis may be cured after long years; gonorrhea is never surely cured, save at great surgical sacrifice. And even if it were, certainly from every point of view, prevention is better.

I find encouragement in the growing practice of teaching the dignity of life and of the laws of life to children over eight, and again at puberty, and in the statement made by Lyttelton, that bad influences of school life "have been found impotent to deprave the tone of a boy who has been fortified by the right kind of instruction from his parents."

Employment Exchange.

Address all communications to Editor Employment Exchange Department of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, Room 905, 156 Fifth Avenue. Kindly enclose postage if a reply is desired.

YOUNG WOMAN graduate in Domestic Science, experienced in settlement work wishes resident position in New York City.

YOUNG MAN, university graduate, experienced investigator and settlement worker, desires position as lecturer or as organizer for social betterment movement, West preferred.

YOUNG JEWESS who has had kindergarten training, and successful settlement experience, wishes engagement for the fall in New York.

YOUNG WOMAN of successful experience in institution management wishes executive work either as Superintendent or Manager.

WOMAN of experience in C. O. S. and settlement work desires re-engagement as head worker in the Fall.

WOMAN of training in social work, wishes to do rescue work among women. Non-resident position in New York would be considered May 1st.

YOUNG WOMAN, who has had some training in gymnastics, could combine charge of classes with housekeeping in a settlement.

YOUNG WOMAN just graduating from college wishes to take up settlement work with children. Can offer no previous experience, but is anxious for an opportunity to learn.

KINDERGARTNER with experience in management of settlement kindergarten is open to engagement.

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WANTED—A good pianist to assist in a settlement kindergarten in Philadelphia. Small remuneration. Engagement at once.

WANTED—Young woman, experienced settlement resident, as Head Worker in small non-sectarian settlement in a large city. College graduate preferred. Immediate engagement.

WANTED—A young Jewish woman as Probation Officer. Must give entire time to the work.

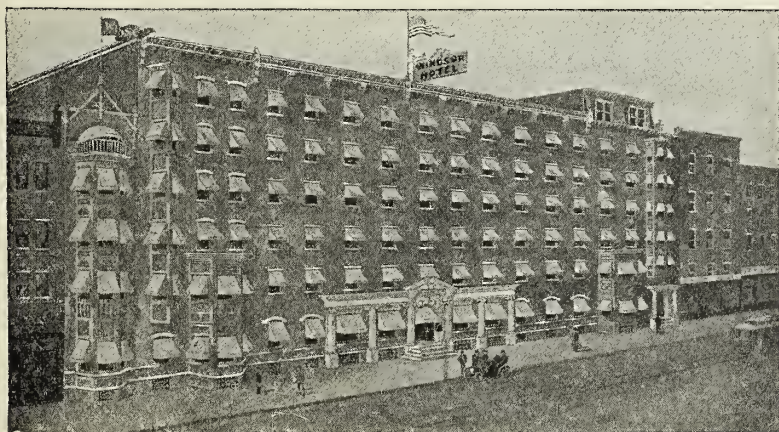
WANTED—General assistant and kindergarten in a Day Nursery. Candidates who have not taken full course of training considered. Immediate engagement. Interview in New York necessary.

EXAMINERS OF CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS

An examination for the position of Examiner of Charitable Institutions will be held Friday, June 1, by the New York City Municipal Civil Service Commission, 61 Elm Street. Applications close Tuesday, May 8, 4 P. M. Men and Women. Salary \$1,200. Vacancies exist in Department of Public Charities.

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To secure a place in this Directory the name of a Supply House must be submitted by an Institution purchasing from it, and known to the publishers of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS. Published every Saturday.

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CHARITIES

and The Commons

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No. 5

Progress of Relief Work.

Money for the relief of San Francisco has continued to pour in from all sources in the most unprecedented manner. President Roosevelt took the position that subscriptions should be limited to this country, but nevertheless other nations have generously insisted upon contributing. The handling of this fund is of national and even international interest. Immediately after the disaster Mayor Schmitz appointed a finance committee composed of some of the most highly esteemed citizens of San Francisco, men accustomed to dealing with large business propositions. Dr. Devine, the special agent of the American National Red Cross Society arrived in San Francisco April 24 and at once effected a union of forces. Under this plan the finance committee becomes the Finance Committee of Relief and Red Cross. Under proclamation of the president, all money is to be sent to Ex-Mayor James D. Phelan, chairman of this committee.

The actual distribution of the food supplies is in the hands of the military authorities. Under this scheme, a prime essential of the relief work is secured. Without this union of agencies, the utmost confusion would have resulted. The best spirit prevails and Secretary Metcalf reports that auditors have been appointed and accurate reports will be rendered of all money and supplies. As was to be expected in so great an undertaking there was much confusion at first, and some supplies were given out without system, but in a creditably short time this is being corrected. It is reported that seven divisions of the city have been made and in each 100 sub-sta-

tions for giving out food have been established. San Francisco thus became for a time a series of long bread lines. In these lines rich and poor, Italian, Hungarian, Chinese and native fared alike. The only question was one of need. Sufficient supplies were rushed to the city and the danger of immediate actual suffering for food has been averted. The milk supply for San Francisco comes largely from the counties across the bay and these were not seriously damaged by the earthquake. The authorities took charge of all milk as soon as received and arranged for it to be used largely for the babies and children. The water supply system, while badly damaged, was to an extent restored so as to warrant the belief that a sufficient amount for drinking purposes is at hand. There is still lack for fire, manufacturing and even for toilet purposes. From a sanitary point of view there are a few cases of small-pox and some of measles, but so far this has been kept in check. The rains have flushed the sewers and gutters and a large force of plumbers has been at work repairing the leaks to prevent the seepage of sewage into the water supply. Citizens have been instructed to boil all drinking water. Arrangements have been made to use school houses for temporary hospitals.

The railroads have continued to carry passengers from San Francisco, large numbers taking advantage of this opportunity. The surrounding towns and cities through Governor Pardee announced the number of refugees that they could care for. The finance committee has made appropriations from the relief fund to care for these refugees as

the burden would be too great for the local funds. Meanwhile the Red Cross is extending help to those districts outside of San Francisco which were damaged by the earthquake. Local committees have been formed in the towns to which the refugees have gone and the relief will be distributed through them.

The extent to which families were scattered is shown by the fact that many children and even babies arrived in Portland unaccompanied and unidentified.

**Refugees
Cross the
Continent.**

It is exceedingly appropriate that the Relief and Aid Society of Chicago, which shouldered the relief work growing out of the great fire, should at this time be active in caring for refugees who are passing through Chicago from San Francisco. Food, clothing and temporary shelter are being distributed under Superintendent Sherman C. Kingsbury. Not only has the Chicago Bureau of Charities "loaned" its superintendent, Ernest P. Bicknell to the relief work in San Francisco, but its district offices are acting as sub-stations for the collection of supplies in Chicago, and its central office as headquarters for the committee on information and conference of the general Chicago relief movement which has been marked with a spirit in keeping with the memories of the trying experiences of this city in the 70's.

The advanced guard of the refugees from San Francisco reached New York on Sunday night. The story of one group of 430 people who took advantage of the free transportation supplied by the railroads is perhaps typical. This entire group was sent east as far as Ogden. At Ogden they were asked if they wanted to go as far east as Chicago. 163 were given tickets to this further point. Before reaching Chicago an agent went through the train and took the name and the final destination of each person. Thus, if a passenger wished to go east to New York or Boston, or south to Charleston, he made it known, and in Chicago he was sent to whatever railroad had agreed to furnish the transportation. A large majority of the 163 who reached Chicago came farther east. On Monday, those who needed further assistance arrived in New York and called at

the Red Cross Society, the Young Men's Christian Association, or the charitable societies. Up to midnight of Monday twenty-two applicants had called at the Joint Application Bureau of the Charity Organization Society and the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor. Of these fifteen were single men and two were single women. In one instance the wife had come east leaving the husband in California, while two others that applied found friends in the city who gladly cared for them. Fourteen needed immediate supply of food or clothing.

The first applicants at the United Hebrew Charities of New York made up a family of man and wife and four children who arrived absolutely penniless and with scant clothing. The man had been a resident of this country sixteen years. He had worked in the garment trades in New York, Philadelphia, and Boston, finally going to Los Angeles for his health. Two years ago he went to San Francisco and became foreman of a department of a women's cloak house, earning \$25 a week. The fire destroyed everything he possessed except a life insurance policy for \$500. The family were on the train eight days without a comfortable hour's sleep and with varying amounts of food. One point in the man's story is that he endeavored to leave the train at Chicago, but that when it was found he formerly had lived in New York a guard pushed him and his family back through the gates and on to an east-bound train.

The relief problem following the San Francisco fire has thus spread across the entire country in ten days' time. The very soreness of the need of some refugees will make imposture easy to the opportune hypocrite. Adequate help can best be extended to applicants through the organized charitable agencies in the different cities.

**Tuberculosis
Dispensary
and Settlement
in Chicago.**

The first public view of the plans for the tuberculosis dispensary and social settlement proposed by the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute, has been afforded at the Chicago Tuberculosis Exhibition.

The idea is to provide residence rooms for the physicians and workers in charge, in the same building which houses the dispensary and other facilities for pushing forward the campaign against tuberculosis.

The ground, at the corner of West Polk and Winchester streets, in a congested region of the west side, has been given by William Kent. The plans adopted call for a two story building with basement. A roof garden—not intended for treatment of consumptives—is to be a playground and school for children of consumptive parents and those otherwise predisposed to the disease. There is to be a glass roof-house for use in wet weather. This also divides the roof space so that one side may be used for kindergarten and cribs, while the rest can be occupied by other children. The second floor provides accommodations for residents—a matron, superintendent and resident physician, also living and dining rooms for the resident staff.

The kitchen will not only supply the residents' dining room, but furnish invalids' diet to be distributed from the floor below. On the first floor, the patients will go first to the waiting rooms. In the reception room the matron or nurse will receive their history and other information and direct them to the treatment room. A pharmacy will provide medicine and sanitary appliances. Consumptive patients confined at home are to be taken care of by the visiting physicians and nurses. In the basement a disinfection and laundry plant is to be established for the use of patients and their families.

A Hebrew Charities Calendar.

An innovation to remind its friends of what the days bring round in the work of a relief society has been devised by the United Hebrew Charities of New York in the way of a calendar. A facsimile of the April sheet in red and brown, reduced in size, is shown on this page.

Lest You Forget		Calendar of Important Events for April, 1906, ISSUED BY THE United Hebrew Charities of New York City. 356 SECOND AVENUE		We Receive No Public Funds	
		APRIL, 1906.			
1	The United Hebrew Charities' visitors will pay 150 VISITS to families in their homes	The LAST day of PASSOVER. Do not let this holiday pass without giving us your help to give to the needy.	16		
2	The Desertion Agent will look after 358 cases opened in the Courts in a period of three months.	A good day on which to remember that Jewish IMMIGRATION will be increased this summer.	17		
3	862 CONSUMPTIVES and their families are better cared for and happier because of the ministrations of the United Hebrew Charities.	A good day on which to VISIT the United Hebrew Charities Building, 356 Second Avenue.	18		
4	1,388 WIDOWS and their 4,371 CHILDREN are comfortable because of the care and assistance they have received from the United Hebrew Charities.	50 WOMEN are learning, in our workshop for unskilled workers, to be SELF-SUPPORTING. Help to support that workshop.	19		
5	3,229 SICK PEOPLE know that the help of the United Hebrew Charities aided them over their worst trials.	This is the day on which the Pension Committee meets. In the past year they have granted PENSIONS amounting to over \$50,000.	20		
6	1,684 WORKMEN are able to support their families because the United Hebrew Charities supplied them, during the past year, the tools of their trade.	The THIRD SABBATH, and we must send to-day, as every day, 82 quarts of milk to consumptives.	21		
7	This is the first SABBATH of the month. Make it better by your resolve to help the United Hebrew Charities.	Spring is here, and we want to prepare some of our families to move to BETTER QUARTERS; help us to do so.	22		
8	Our poor beneficiaries REJOICE that they are able to celebrate the Passover, because the United Hebrew Charities gave them the means to do it.	The United Hebrew Charities is busy to-day, as on all other days, RELIEVING distress.	23		
9	This is the SEDER night, and thousands of persons are thanking God, at their festival, for our ministrations.	If a poor man comes to you to-day, if you have one of our COUPON BOOKLETS, send him to us with a coupon, and we will care for him.	24		
10	To-day, of all days, you should be moved to help us. It is PASSOVER, the time of all time for giving to the poor.	This is the time of year when SICK PEOPLE must be sent away from the city.	25		
11	The second day of Passover for our pensioners. You should remember their NEEDS.	255 GARMENTS are given to-day to those needing them.	26		
12	1,641 UNEMPLOYED persons were assisted to find situations and self-support in a year—an average of 4 per day.	We are CARING FOR 1,388 widows and their 4,371 children to-day and every day.	27		
13	At least 1,500 IMMIGRANTS were assisted by our agents at Ellis Island, and sent their way rejoicing, properly directed.	The LAST SABBATH in this month. Have you forgotten that we receive no public funds?	28		
14	Another SABBATH day. You can rest if you have assisted us.	We want you to REALIZE to-day that we must have the support of every person in our community.	29		
15	28,664 Immigrants sent to communities outside of New York are grateful to the United Hebrew Charities for their help in getting them away from New York conditions.	The month ENDS, and you surely will not let it go without the resolve to give us your help by your subscription. SEND IT TO US.	30		

**Legislative
Advances in
Maryland.**

What has been accomplished in the way of constructive and preventive legislation in Maryland the past winter, gives thorough encouragement to those watching the spread of movements which make for better conditions and freer opportunity. For Maryland means in good time the south.

Perhaps the most noteworthy advances have been in the direction of investigations and publicity—of bringing social facts before the public and of bringing public opinion to bear upon methods and conditions. Notable in this direction provision for a census of physically and mentally defective children, a thorough investigation of the needs of the adult blind, a commission to study the indeterminate sentence and laws which give the State Board of Health a supervising authority over local boards, and authorize the governor to have representatives at meetings, of boards of institutions receiving financial assistance from the state.

Reference has already been made to the passage of the child labor law which prohibits employment under twelve years of age during the school year—a meager enough minimum to be sure, but a real step in advance nevertheless. Later legislation will raise this age limit; it will prohibit work the whole year round; it will keep the children out of the canneries of the state as they are kept out of the tanneries of Baltimore by this year's bill. Six inspectors are authorized to carry out the provisions of the law, at a salary of \$900 each. They are to be appointed by the Maryland Bureau of Statistics and Information, one of the progressive state bureaus of the country. Two additional probation officers are authorized for the supreme bench of Baltimore city, who will work chiefly in the juvenile court and may be employed by the judge of the criminal court. Institutions are authorized to retain children committed to their care, until they reach the age of twenty-one. Midwives or institutions can no longer receive infants or young children for compensation without securing a license from the Board of Health which is given power of investigation. Compulsory education pro-

visions will reach specifically the deaf, dumb and blind and a census of all such children and feeble-minded children between the ages of six and sixteen is provided for. The movement for institutional nomenclature is indicated by the change of the House of Refuge for Boys to the Maryland School for Boys, which will be given \$50,000 for new buildings to be located in the country. The St. Mary's Industrial School, the Roman Catholic School for Delinquents, is also to be given \$50,000 for new buildings for boys under ten years of age. The city of Baltimore is authorized to contract with the Playgrounds Association of Baltimore for the support of playgrounds.

A state tuberculosis sanatorium was incorporated and \$100,000 appropriated for its buildings. \$25,000 was also appropriated to the private hospital for consumptives, of which \$40,000 has been raised by private gifts—a subsidy arrangement which cannot be given entire endorsement.

A commission of five persons is to be appointed by the governor to study the question of the indeterminate sentence and reformatory methods for criminals, and this far-sighted undertaking may prove an antidote in the end for a curious piece of legislation passed this year by which all minimum penalties under the jurisdiction of the courts seem to be done away with entirely.

Commissions to improve the condition of the adult blind have already carried on investigations to some extent in New York and Massachusetts and their work is to be continued. With the appointment of a Maryland commission to work also in this field, a truly valuable body of information is likely to be gathered. The Maryland commission is required to make a census covering age, financial condition, cause and extent of blindness, and capacity for educational and industrial training. They will report December 31, 1907. Meanwhile, they may aid such adult blind persons to find employment and may furnish material and tools at a cost not exceeding \$50 to any one individual.

Reference has already been made in this magazine to radical legislation with

respect to assignments of wages and salaries.

The State Board of Health is authorized when any local registrar does not keep full and complete records, to take charge of the local office for three months, after giving the local board of health thirty days' notice. In case the registration does not exceed by 10 per cent that of the local registrar in the corresponding three months of the previous year, the State Board of Health shall pay the expenses for running the offices.

The governor is authorized to appoint from time to time one or more discreet persons to attend meetings of boards of institutions receiving financial assistance from the state. Such representatives have no vote, but are entitled to be present at meetings of boards and to express their views.

**The Widow's
Mite—A
Slovak Version
of To-day.**

A number of the Slav journals in this country have been republishing in whole or in part the articles in this magazine in which Miss Balch is analysing Slav immigration at its sources. They are held to be the first impartial interpretation of this great movement of a people.

Those who have been reading the series will be glad to thank V. Svarc of Cleveland, for translating an item which was published in the *Slovensky Dennik* (Slovak daily of Pittsburg). It runs in this wise:

McKeesport, Pa., April 6, 1906.—McKeesport children had a veritable "show" yesterday, when they saw two of our countrymen going down the street wearing "krpce." They were Jan Skobovsky and his friend, who arrived yesterday in McKeesport direct from the old country, seeking work here. The entire capital which these fellow-countrymen possessed consisted of six cents divided equally between them. Of course you cannot buy very much in America with such a limited capital, but they were nevertheless hopeful that for this money they would at least be able to get something to eat. However, before they would enter some "hotel", they agreed to seek out an employment bureau. While they were sauntering along they were met by another countryman who entered into a conversation with them. He told them how a fellow-countryman had just been killed in an accident, and not being a member of a benevolent society there was no money available with which to pay his funeral expenses. In order to prevent the

corpse from being consigned to a medical college, their acquaintance was making a collection to defray the funeral expenses. To this he requested them to contribute. They looked at each other. The death of their countryman touched them deeply, and each of them reached down in his pocket, produced three cents, and turned the money over to the collector, who was seized with a sudden surprise that such small amounts should be contributed.

"Have you not more money?" he asked them.

"In truth, dear brother, that is our last money, but when it is necessary to contribute towards the funeral of an unfortunate one, we give it gratefully," they replied.

"And where are you from?"

"From the old country."

"Have you been in America long?"

"We are just coming from the railroad station."

"Just so, because nobody here wears 'krpce'," spake the collector, and took the fellow-countryman along with him. He led them to the employment bureau, paid the required fees for both of them, and then took them into his own home, where after having washed, they were given additional clothing and a good meal. Their good-heartedness impressed him so strongly, that he told them they could remain his guests until they would find steady employment.

Thus these countrymen of ours came into unexpected comfort, all because they had opened their good hearts to a philanthropic fellow-countryman.

**Seventeen
Years of
Small
Savings.**

The children of an Avenue A mission would guess rather wide of the mark, no doubt, if asked to give their ideas of what a Kentucky town is like, and an equally vague picture of a Manhattan tenement neighborhood, is possessed by a group of small folk at St. John's Academy in Corbin, Ky. Yet with both of these the vari-colored stamps of the Penny Provident Fund of the New York Charity Organization Society play a part in the scheme of things.

The two cases cited show the remarkable spread of a thrift agency which, in its 17th annual report just issued, shows a total of 277 stations as against 55 the first year; 87,163 depositors as against 11,690; and \$51,464.80, deposits on hand, as against \$5,568.57 in 1890. As the fund pays no interest it accumulates no large individual deposits and loses them as soon as they become of any importance. The volume of business was large in 1905, \$114,571 saved, \$112,439.75

withdrawn. That all but \$2,000 was withdrawn, to be deposited in savings banks, or spent for necessities or otherwise, does not detract a particle from the usefulness of the fund for it is an elementary school which leads to the savings bank and is not in competition with it.

The fund originated in thought with a member of the old third district committee of the New York Charity Organization Society, Mrs. Couper, who was asked by families in care of the committee to receive small funds which they were trying to save. Mrs. Couper found this inconvenient to do personally and her inquiries led to the permanent organized system.

The close of the seventeenth year is marked by the retirement of Miss Marian Messemer who had been in charge of the work since its beginning. Charles Golden, her assistant during the greater part of that time, succeeds her as secretary and cashier. At a meeting of the Central Council of the Charity Organization Society a resolution was passed to the effect that Miss Messemer's faithful management "represents the entire history of the fund" and expressing "appreciation of her ability and devotion and regret that she feels compelled to retire from the service."

The success of this pioneer work in small savings is not to be gauged merely by the financial showing that 87,163 persons have deposited a total of \$1,212,249.14 in the stations now operated. It has led to similar enterprises elsewhere; it has encouraged the spread of school saving systems, and more than that, it has emphasized the importance of the small depositor in ways which have led savings banks to adopt various plans, such as metal banks, and deposits by mail, which would reach the same class and encourage savings among those who need them most.

Diluted Progress at Washington. Allusion was made in these columns a fortnight ago to the unfortunate attitude of certain members of the medical profession of Washington, D. C., toward the bill requiring registration of consumptives in that city. It is now report-

ed that in consequence of the united opposition of the doctors, the committee on the prevention of consumption has withdrawn its bill based on the experience of the rest of the country and in the interests of "harmony" has agreed to the emasculated substitute of the Medical Society which provides for the compulsory registration of *indigent cases*, the *voluntary* registration of cases in charge of private physicians and the free examination of sputum for persons *unable to pay*;—provides, in other words, for practically nothing.

If the press reports can be relied upon, the arguments presented against the committee's plan were the usual ones which have been offered in community after community and disproved by the experience of nearly every large city in the United States.

The complacency of the Washington physicians and their bland superiority to the lessons of experience would be amusing if it were not so serious. We can only hope that the "harmony" which reigns is not more than a surface smoothness and that continued agitation will prevent the national capital from being quite the last American center to range itself on the side of sanitary common sense.

**The Centennial
of the
New York
Orphanage.**

The Orphan Asylum Society of New York City will celebrate this month its one hundredth anniversary.

versary.

"Little of all we value here

Wakes on the morn of its hundredth
year

Without both feeling and looking
queer."

But this old institution neither feels nor looks queer in its new and commodious quarters upon a beautiful site overlooking the "lordly Hudson." It shows no marks of its antique origin.

During the hundred years of its history it has been most wisely and conservatively financed. It has never closed its doors to destitute orphans and can probably show a greater average length of official tenure of trusteeship than any similar institution in the country.

The institution was founded by a few benevolent women among whom was Mrs. Alexander Hamilton, who served on its board of managers for forty-three years. Its chief executive official is the first directress. In the long stretch of a hundred years there have been but six women who have filled this position; and a tenure of twenty-five years in its official staff has frequently occurred.

The institution has occupied three different sites. The first was on Raisin street, in the old village of Greenwich, now lower New York. As early as 1837 it was moved to Bloomingdale, where it had erected a new building on what afterwards became West Seventy-third street and Riverside Drive. It occupied this site until 1902, when it was moved to its present location on the east bank of the Hudson, at Hastings.

This orphanage is one of the few—if the term is admissible—absolute charities of the country. It receives no public funds and makes no charge for the care and education of its wards. Any full, destitute orphan of protestant parentage is eligible for admission.

**The Gospel of
Dishpan
and Chair.**

To preach the gospel of the dishpan and the chair was the idea of an exhibition given last week in one of the buildings of the Nurses' Settlement, New York. The exhibit was held in connection with the convention last week of the National Society of Superintendents of Training Schools for Nurses. And the doctrine back of the gospel was to show what contrivances can be pieced together from the most meager household equipment to meet the needs of district nursing among the poor—in emergency cases and in chronic cases where it is not necessary for the patients to be in a hospital. The dishpan is used in giving baths, in surgical dressings, as a pus basin, a solution dish, a foot tub,—“anything under heaven you want water for.” And beside this homely receptacle were shown strange utensils brought forth from immigrant households in the hour of need to the aid of the visiting nurse,—casseroles, glorious Italian coppers and Russian brasses such as would make the collector's eyes bulge with envy.

The contrivances in which the chair is used—the chair and the bandage, for the bandage is a Pauline instrument and is all things to all visiting nurses—were such as to surprise the hospital worker, or the nurse in private practice used to glass tables and fine linen and the sanitary appliances which modern surgery demands. Four chairs, held firmly by bandages, were used in a nephritic case for a tent bed, connected with a gas burner by a stove-pipe elbow covered with asbestos. This apparatus was one in actual use borrowed from a patient for the exhibit. A still simpler makeshift was resorted to for a woman whose bed was too broken to be used and who was placed on an old chair with a pail of hot water under her, her feet in a wash boiler, dosed with hot lemonade, and done up in blankets loaned by the settlement. This treatment was carried on in a rear house in Allen street for weeks. Chairs and bandages and two ironing boards went into a surgical dressing table.

By way of contrast, was shown the condition in which a baby sick with pneumonia is too often found in a tenement home, with head done up, wrapped over and under with a comforter, and temperature ranging at 106; then, as left by the nurse with a hot water bottle at its feet and an ice pack at its head and over it an old worsted shawl inside a pillow slip. So too, were shown a typical tuberculosis bed and the simple methods of caring for sputum; the top of a dinner pail used as a hot water bottle; formical and chloride of lime, cheap disinfectants in typhoid cases, and so arranged as to be without danger to the children.

The aesthetic side was hinted at by old bed linens beautifully embroidered, spreads and pillow slips and, most wonderful of all, a stunning Russian night shirt in red and black, home spun and hand worked every bit of it, with dashes of color about the neck which would make it the rage were the fashion to be introduced by a Broadway outfitter.

Of progressive interest was the exhibit of the New York school nurses, showing with what simple appliances can school nursing be started in a commun-

ity, and illustrative of the day's work of the school nurse. It is to be hoped that the visiting superintendents will carry this gospel home with them.

The completion of the first year's work of the New York Women's Trade Union League was made the occasion of a mass meeting the evening of April 29, at Webster Hall. In opening the meeting Miss Dreier pointed out that the hope for all workers—and the hope for the working woman was the center of the discussion of the evening—lies in unity. Foreign born workers, she urged, must learn that they will secure decent sanitary conditions, fair wages and good hours, only with the backing of a strong labor organization. American workers must learn to join forces with these newcomers if they would secure these same things rather than have to compete unsuccessfully with new industrial recruits, foreign born and willing to accept lower standards.

Mrs. Harriet Stanton Blatch discussed vigorously how far is true the charge that women are the stumbling block in improving industrial conditions. She quoted damaging adjectives from the report of an English labor commission which had found the women workers "untrained," "inefficient," "always ready to accept low wages, long hours;" "never wanting to get on;" "no concentration;" "no self respect;" "no self reliance;" "always ready to hang on to some one else," in a word "no grit."

"The trouble is," said Mrs. Blatch, "that the world has taught us to hold ourselves that way, but the world is beginning to change its opinion of marriage and the home; to demand character there. It is in the labor union that the working woman can get the training that will make her not only a good worker but a decent, self-respecting wife and mother. * * * We think that we can work and earn wages without putting anything into the trade. Only now are we beginning to see our responsibilities for the future; that it is still our trade when we leave it."

This idea was carried further by Gertrude Barnum, national organizer of the league, who said:—

Women are individuals. When they get rid of this everlasting superstition that they are only wives and daughters and sweet-hearts of men, they will begin to see life as individuals. They would want to be homemakers still, but they will be ready to really make homes. They would protest against tenement conditions and they would fight against child labor. Who is the real mother? She who has found some of the real paths of life and is going to put her children's feet in those paths. As a worker herself she will stand out for those conditions in the working world which will mean for her children something other than hours and pay and sweating which crush out of life so much that is precious. Sometimes I feel that only an earthquake can make the women of the well-to-do see what working conditions in New York, such as those we find in Brownsville, are costing the race. I sometimes feel that they must work as the cooks work, from early in the morning until ten at night before their imagination will see what these things mean.

Mrs. Mary Wolders of the Cigar-maker's Union, Mr. Campbell of Typographical Union No. 6, and William Edlin, editor of *The Capmakers Journal*, spoke of organization, the label, and strike methods. Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor, presided. A year ago Mr. Gompers had expressed the view that the league might become merely a fad among women of what he called "the pink note type." What has been accomplished during the year has given him assurance that it is an organization "not intended to be petted and coaxed, but to place women in a position where they can help themselves." Mr. Gompers' utterance might indeed have been construed as a plea for still another organization—one to keep heedless employers out of what churchmen have called the "place of departed spirits." "I can never forgive society for the wrong it has done and is doing," he declared, "to the young and innocent exploited in textile mills or the coal mines or other industries. I have nothing but contempt for him who prays once a week for the salvation of women and children and the rest of the week preys on them. We want something not only in the sweet-by-and-by, but something in the bitter now."

I don't believe that the Kingdom of Heaven will ever be attained by men who exploit the labor of children, and I believe that we should set about energetically to make them realize this."

**A Hebrew
Free Burial
Society.**

*The Agudath Achim
Chessed Shel Emeth*
stands unique among the
charitable institutions of

New York's East Side. The society was founded to assist the poor in the burial of their dead. Since its organization in 1886 it has given burial to 13,865 bodies, incurring a total expense of \$132,817.71. Its receipts during the same period have amounted to \$143,088.09. Aside from the aid that the society gives to poor people, the Hebrew Free Burial Society, to call it by its English name, renders good service by keeping the potter's field free of Jewish pauper graves.

**The Philadelphia
Conference.**

These "last words" are sent out by the local committee of arrangements for the National Conference of Charities and Correction, Philadelphia, May 9-16:

1. Do not forget to get a certificate from your ticket agent, together with your single fare ticket to Philadelphia.
2. Guides will be found at Broad St. station, Philadelphia, on Wednesday and Thursday to care for your luggage, etc.
3. Horticultural Hall, Broad St., near Locust, will be open all day Wednesday, May 9th. Please register as soon as you arrive in town. This will greatly facilitate the publication of the first Bulletin.
4. There will be a post-office at headquarters. Mail may be addressed "National Conference of Charities and Correction, Horticultural Hall, Philadelphia."
5. Please notify L. Stauffer Oliver, 1007 Bailey Building, Philadelphia, if you expect to be present on the opening night, in order that a seat may be reserved for you.

Some Lessons of the San Francisco Disaster

Robert W. de Forest

Some of the lessons of the San Francisco disaster are old, some are new. The old ones will bear repeating. The new ones are worth learning.

First and foremost is the reliance which can be placed on private generosity to meet such emergencies in America.

This has been proved again and again on a smaller scale, the latest illustration in New York city having been the Slo-cum disaster, when about a thousand lives were lost, and when ample funds were spontaneously contributed to meet all needs that could be so supplied. It has never before been demonstrated in such national proportions.

It is fortunate that in this special instance Congress was in session, so that a grant from the public treasury could be made immediately available, but in lesser emergencies voluntary giving will suffice.

Better so, for voluntary giving stimulates habits of generosity among our people. The grant of public money for such purposes by states or municipalities would tend to stifle private benevolence and create precedents sure to be abused.

Next in order is a remarkable demonstration of the ability of an American community to organize itself to meet unlooked for situations. It is not the municipal government but a committee of citizens which assumes control. It fuses its newly acquired functions spontaneously with the federal army which happens to be on the spot. The great railroad companies, the telegraph, lighting and water companies, all combine with the self-constituted authorities to bring order out of chaos, as if in obedience to some natural law.

It is probably the most signal instance in history of a social community's instinctively co-ordinating its resources to meet a sudden and unexpected emergency. It could hardly have happened except in a self-dependent American city. Other American cities under like circumstances will give the same account of themselves. We can trust them to help themselves.

Another salient point is the efficiency in case of any such disaster of a well disciplined military force, accustomed to obey orders and under competent command. The accidental presence of federal troops under General Funston was all important, not only for the maintenance of order but for the distribution of relief.

It is a fair question whether there should not be quickly accessible in every part of the country a body of disciplined men constantly ready to cope with any such situation. It matters not what form their organization takes, whether it be a part of the regular army, or a trained police force or a state constabulary. The important thing is that maintenance of order should be their profession and that they should be constantly ready under an efficient commanding officer.

The gain to humanity of the telegraph and the railroad has seldom been more plainly shown. Without the telegraph and the railroad how many of San Francisco's 300,000 homeless people would have survived the famine and disease that must have immediately ensued?

On the side of relief administration, with which this magazine is specially concerned, it is evident that the fundamental principles which govern wise action are understood. Organized charity has not preached and practiced in vain. The orgies of relief distribution which followed the Johnstown flood, when too often the weak were pushed aside and the strong possessed themselves of everything, have not been repeated.

The administration of relief has been placed in experienced and competent hands as matter of course. There has been no hesitation or doubt about the expediency of doing this. Not many years ago any person of good intention would have been deemed competent.

It is no small proof of the recognition of training in charitable work that the President of our nation and the reorganized National Red Cross Society should have chosen as their special agent for the distribution of relief Dr. Edward T. Devine, director of the New York School of Philanthropy and general secretary of the New York Charity Organization Society, who also by some strange chance happens to be this year's president of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

The more serious problems of relief giving are still to come. The task of giving out food and clothes, and providing temporary shelter, however difficult, is nevertheless simple compared with that of recreating the means of livelihood and re-establishing the home.

We are dealing, fortunately, with industrious people able and willing to work if they have the means with which to do it. It is not the weary task of bolstering up the dependent. It is the inspiring problem of providing the self-dependent with the means of continuing to be self-dependent.

But the mechanic to be self-dependent must have his tools, his wife must have her sewing machine, his family must have cooking utensils and some simple furniture, as well as a roof to shelter them. Moreover, the small tradesman, to play his important part in the social distribution, must renew his stock in trade.

It is meeting these needs promptly and efficiently that the higher relief work must find its scope and scientific charity its opportunity.

Systematized loan relief would be very desirable and helpful. There is no reason why anyone who is self-supporting, and has lost his "tools of trade," should be ashamed of accepting as a gift the means of replacing them. Many self-respecting members of the community, however, would infinitely prefer to borrow and would be quite certain to repay anything they borrowed. Loan relief in limited amounts to approved persons would be a most helpful and proper means of restoring earning capacity, and lenders might be assured that the greater part of such loans would be repaid.

The Social Message of the Modern Church

Graham Taylor

It is highly significant of the tendency which religious thought and action are taking that the Lyman Beecher lectures on preaching at Yale University bore the above title. For only the second time in the thirty years during which this course has been delivered has it been exclusively devoted to the application of Christianity to the social conditions of modern life. Dr. Washington Gladden's more general treatment of "Social Salvation" was most effectively supplemented by Dr. Charles R. Brown's more concrete and incisive treatment of the "Supreme Need of the Modern Church." He did

not content himself with an appeal to pity for increased almsgiving, but prophet-like launched an imperious demand for justice in behalf not only of the despoiled individual but also in behalf of society's protest against "the type of human being, which such a process would ultimately produce." The recklessness and ruthlessness involved in the demand for large profits and good dividends was amply illustrated by the all too prevalent conditions and tendencies which stare the Christian ideals and ethics in the face. When at forty-five years of age men are discarded from any industry for industrial old age at the very prime of their natural life, Dr. Brown demands in the name of religion some other reason than that given by a superintendent in a steel works, "the way we have to rush things now, makes it necessary for us to get in a batch of men, work them out and then get a fresh batch." It does not satisfy him that "to swell the most extravagant scale of living which this world has ever seen, there are thousands of breaker-boys at the mines in Pennsylvania, and of bobbin girls in the cotton mills of the south, and of factory hands, men and women, in all the huge manufactories, whose physical health and mental unfolding, whose spirit of hope and moral stamina are being ruthlessly undermined."

When they appear in book form these lectures cannot fail to direct and accelerate the already strong tendencies, especially of the younger clergy to emphasize "the social message of the modern church" not only in their pulpits, but in their parish administration.

Into denominational polity the same trend is being wrought by the stress and strain of the times. A very notable recognition of it has been recently given in a new "declaration of faith," formulated as the basis of the proposed union of the Congregational, United Brethren, and Methodist Protestant churches. The last of these declarations, consummating those devoted to the definition of theological tenet and sacramental observances, for almost the first time in any credal symbol, lays equal emphasis upon

the social obligation imposed by the ethics of Christianity. The simple and strong language and spirit in which this new article of faith is expressed makes it memorable in the doctrinal development of the Christian life. It may well find place in the covenant of every church, as one of the pre-requisites of membership and be a bond of fellowship and work. It reads as follows:

We believe that according to Christ's law men of the Christian faith exist for the service of man, not only in holding forth the word of life, but in the support of works and institutions of pity and charity, in the maintenance of human freedom, in the deliverance of all those that are oppressed, in the enforcement of civic justice, and in the rebuke of all unrighteousness.

After Earthquake and Fire

Graham Taylor

The utterance on the social message of the church, upon which we have commented above, is not more notable in itself than for the fact that its spokesman has long been identified with the Pacific coast. It demonstrates that there is good ground for the hope of a great social awakening among the people beyond the Rockies. They have been so isolated from the closer contacts with the older and more developed states and cities that the extreme individualism of their spirit and civilization is the natural product of their conditions and progress. The mastery of their mines has mastered most of the people who opened and shared their wealth. The promotion of trans-continental railways has crowned promoters as "bonanza kings," and subordinated the people of whole states to the domination, if not exploitation, of a few rich men, or the corporations which perpetuate their dynasties. But the pioneer period is passing. The backing and filling process has begun. Municipal democracy is in the air. Where West and East most meet and mingle, as at Los Angeles, there social progress has become the main policy of political parties, and the watchword of the citizens irrespective of party affiliation. But for public spirit, even with regard to their own towns and cities, for the support,

efficiency and development of public institutions, for the enactment of advanced legislation restraining evils and protecting the helpless, and for the sense of solidarity with other parts of our country and the world, the strong, prosperous, self confident communities of the Pacific slope have not been conspicuous.

Comparatively recently, however, a new spirit has given proof of its presence among them. Plans for beautifying municipal conditions involve the reconstruction of whole cities. Delegations come to the central west and east to study municipal policies with regard to public utilities. Municipal leagues are growing in number and influence. Organized labor has won its most sweeping yet crudest victories there. Public libraries multiply. Universities command the best talent in the world, broaden culture, and popularize academic studies by means of great summer schools. The National Conference of Charities and Correction was taken from Portland, Maine, to Portland, Oregon, to help raise the ideals, increase the efficiency and promote the fellowship of all engaged in philanthropic and reformatory work. Churches are by no means the last or the least to be caught up and carried on by the social spirit which is sure to humanize industry, education and religion. Along some lines they have been foremost in thought, feeling and action.

The earthquake and the fire have given "that one touch of nature which makes the world akin." The "still small voice" which so quickly and tenderly crossed distance and every other barrier to whisper hope, courage and cheer, will never lose its charm. None of us can ever live as much to himself on either side of any dividing line as though this most appalling disaster in American history had not drawn or driven our hearts together. The social awakening and integration of our westernmost states and cities to share the common life of our whole people as never before, may be the richest aftermath of the desolation, in which it is difficult to see any other compensation. Unhampered by long tradition, free from hereditary custom,

untrammelled by any temptation to be conservative merely for the sake of conservatism, with climate and natural resources which tempt both wealth and poverty to reside there, with the terminals of waterways and railways, which draw east and west together as nowhere else, the brave, tireless, undaunted people around the Golden Gate and Puget Sound are likely to make rich return to the Central and Atlantic states for all of heart and hand ever invested among them. And that return is likely to be a full orb'd humanity, expressed in free labor, wealth that shall be commonwealth, education that shall be cosmopolitan, religion that will be as human as it is divine, and manhood and womanhood fit for the citizenship of the world.

Social Policies and the English Public

A striking indication of the increased interest in England in social policies which have for their object the prevention of dependence, is furnished by a current issue of the weekly edition of the *London Times*. Four of the seven leading editorials in that issue deal with the following subjects: Meals for School Children; The Treatment of Vagrants; The Decrease of Drinking; and The Need of Pay Hospitals. In fact, that part of the table of contents which is given to leading articles looks strangely like our own table of contents. Almost any number of the *London Spectator* will also be found to furnish at least one leading article on some subject which it would equally be within our own province to discuss. The phenomenon is not without its counterpart on this side of the Atlantic, both in the metropolitan daily press and in the weekly, and even the monthly, periodicals.

Two of the four subjects which we have quoted from the *Times*, the treatment of vagrants and the question of drink are to have consideration in early future numbers of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS. Problems of the hospital in this country do not relate to a need for pay hospitals, although there is naturally a continuous demand for increased facil-

ities of this kind. Indeed it is the adoption of what is described as the American plan that is urged by the *Times*, as at least a partial solution for the difficulties experienced in England.

There are those in this country who would like to see the hospital system differentiated entirely into two classes of institutions: free hospitals for indigent patients, and hospital-hotels for pay patients, adapted like hotels and boarding houses to the needs of patients of varying degrees of ability to pay. This, however, is an extreme position, and we shall probably see instead an increase in the semi-private hospitals, with or without religious affiliation, and with incomes provided in varying degrees from endowments, pay patients, municipal subsidies, and annual contributions. If there is what can be said to be an American plan it must include any or all of these sources of income, although some will prefer to describe payments by the city, county, or state as "payments for the support of public charges," rather than as subsidies and this is a fair distinction, if such payments are made, on a per capita and per diem plan, after due investigation by some properly constituted public authority.

The first named subject—meals for school children—is dealt with in a measure about to be enacted by Parliament, significantly named an "Education bill." This bill, which appeared to encounter little or no opposition even in conservative journals, provides for the feeding of indigent school children at public expense, and for the selling of meals to other children at a price sufficient to cover their cost. It is argued that in so far as this is an infringement of the principle of individual responsibility it is only a logical consequence of the more serious but now practically universally accepted infringement involved in compulsory school attendance. Originally compulsory attendance involved payment by parents of fees for tuition, but it was soon admitted that if the state is to compel attendance, it must provide free schools for those who profess themselves unable to pay fees. This logical development of the English free school, it is to be borne in mind is distinct from the

genesis and spirit of the public school in America. It is now held, in a further application of the same idea, that if children are required to attend school they must be kept in a sufficiently well-nourished condition to make such attendance profitable; in other words, that children cannot be taught successfully if they are underfed or improperly nourished.

It is quite true that the needs of families who are so destitute as to be unable to supply their children with food might be met by the poor law authorities without the new legislation which is now proposed, but public opinion in England seems to be crystallizing in favor of old age pensions, special relief for the unemployed, and meals for school children by means entirely divorced from poor law administration. Those who stand staunchly by the principle of individual responsibility and the doctrine that no form of relief should be given on easy terms, whether it be old age pension, relief for the unemployed, or meals for school children, are like voices crying in the wilderness. It is only fair to add, however, that these voices are none the less clear and distinct, and it may be that with an improvement of industrial conditions and the lessening of the unemployed, the policies for which they plead will regain their ascendancy.

Even as we write a change seems to have come over the spirit of one of the two influential journals to which reference has been made. The *Spectator* virtually apologizes for not having sufficiently guarded its position either on the subject of old-age pensions, and on that of feeding the children. In its issue of March 24 appears an incisive letter from Sir William Chance predicting that when the new royal commission on the poor law gets ready to take evidence, the antagonists of old-age pensions will not be found silent on the subject; and a letter from Catherine C. Osler pleading in connection with the subject of children's meals for the development, rather than the destruction of parental responsibility, which calls forth the significant editorial comment that "the more this question is studied, the more clearly will it be recognized that the in-

discriminate feeding of school children must prove a curse to the nation and not a blessing. In cases where the children are really starving and where the parents are really unable to provide for them, let the poor law be invoked, but do not let us establish a new machinery of pauperization."

In the same number of the *Spectator* is an appreciative editorial review of a series of papers contributed by F. A. Mackenzie to the *Daily Mail*, describing the extravagance of the guardians in London who build palaces for paupers instead of work houses, and spend in the maintenance of the inmates nearly three times as much as was spent in London in 1871, and twice as much as is spent at present in rural unions in England. And finally, as if still further to emphasize its thorough going adhesion to conservative policies, we find a brief editorial notice of a paper read by C. S. Loch before the Royal Statistical Society, on the statistics of population and pauperism, indicating that while there has been a considerable general decline in the percentage of paupers of different ages to population since 1861, there has also been, within the last few years, an increase in proportion of middle-age and old-age pauperism. Mr. Loch thinks that this increase is due to the elaborate provision made recently for the feeding and shelter of the unemployed, especially in the metropolis. The *Spectator*, accepting this view adds: "This paper presents a timely warning against the false philanthropy in which we have been indulging of late. To put the matter brutally, we have been deliberately manufacturing paupers, and unless we now reduce the 'out put' the whole nation will feel the consequences, moral and economic."

There is of course, no more keen and able judge of public policy in the matter of poor relief than Mr. Loch: and doubtless the full text of his paper would contain either qualifications or proofs which are not suggested by the brief paragraph before us. We have, however, been much misled by the dispatches and our own correspondence if

the recent increase in pauperism in England can justly be attributed, primarily, to the relief schemes. It would seem to us a not unnatural result of economic conditions of which the admittedly abnormal amount of unemployment, and exceptional distress, no less than the growth of the demand for special forms of relief are symptoms. No doubt the amount of pauperism, in the strict legal sense, can be restricted arbitrarily by the amount of money expended, or the imposition of harsher restrictions. Out-door pauperism can even be entirely abolished, in the same technical sense merely by the abolition of that form of relief; and this has been done in several American cities.

Possibly, as Chalmers held, both outdoor and in-door relief, that is to say all organized public provision for the relief of distress, might be abolished without increasing the hardships of the poor and to their great moral benefit. The spontaneous, personal charity which Chalmers believed would take its place is now abundantly exemplified in the city tenements, and we share with Mr. Loch and his colleagues in the Charity Organization Society of London a very decided preference for such private spontaneous relief. It appears to us however to be a one-sided view to attribute such increase as has taken place in England chiefly to the relief schemes rather than to industrial causes. Still, we are on the other side of the ocean and we are not prepared to say whether this question is one which can best be judged on the ground or at a distance.

Nor is it a cause for any satisfaction that we are able at the moment to study it at a distance, for the world is in these days wonderfully small and centers of distress and of agitation no less than centers of reform and progress have a way of moving east or west with startling rapidity; and moreover there is a very close family concern in this country for what happens in England, whether it be a revolution in the membership of the House of Commons or the presentation of a significant paper before the statistical society.

Where San Francisco Was Sorest Stricken

The Mission District—Telegraph Hill—Barbary Coast—the Water Front and Other Quarters

Lucile Eaves

[This rapid survey of those sections of the community where both homes and livelihood were wiped out is based on an intimate acquaintance with the wage-earning population of San Francisco gained by the writer as head-worker of South Park Settlement. Last fall Miss Eaves came to New York to secure the degree of doctor of philosophy at Columbia University. She left her studies within forty-eight hours of the catastrophe to engage in the work of relief, returning to San Francisco under appointment of the New York State Red Cross. This article was written in response to telegraphic request and was mailed from the train. The writer had not yet learned whether harm had come to a sister and co-workers in the old five-story brick structure which housed this settlement in the heart of a tenement district devastated first by earthquake and then by fire.—Ed.]

For a week the newspapers have been printing maps of San Francisco. Each morning and evening the black line of destruction has been extended to include new blocks. Perhaps it is well that we can form no adequate conception of all the human suffering involved in this sudden destruction of miles of homes. That the sympathies of the nation are already enlisted is shown by the widespread contributions pouring into the relief funds. A fuller knowledge of the stricken people may bring an even greater realization. That the sufferers are not strangers in a far away state, but fellow craftsmen bound to the people of other parts of the country by ties of blood and common working interests, may prompt the people of this great, rich, prosperous country to an even greater outpouring of relief.

The damage from the earthquake was greatest in the made land which lies between Telegraph Hill and Rincon Hill, and runs from Montgomery street to the water front. This is the wholesale district of San Francisco, and its army of clerks had not yet begun the day's work. Only the market men were abroad buying the meat, vegetables and fruit that were to feed the great sleeping city. One meat market collapsed, killing a number of these early risers, and probably others were injured by the falling debris, while hastening to places of safety.

Towards the water front in this dis-

trict were a few of the cheaper hotels and lodging houses, old, badly built structures. These were occupied largely by sailors or other marine workers. There were also a number of manufacturing establishments, the destruction of which will throw out of employment many iron workers engaged in the machine shops, foundries and boiler works, the employes of two carriage and wagon factories, of several canneries, a number of women workers in the clothing trades and paper box factories, leather workers in harness shops and glove factories and the employes of two large tent and awning establishments.

Cheap, poorly-built lodging houses are scattered through the narrow cross streets of the blocks south of Mission, between 2nd and 5th. These were occupied chiefly by unmarried men, many of whom are transients, or spend the winter in the city doing odd jobs and then get better paid agricultural work in the summer. The cheaper of these lodging houses were old frame buildings, wretched, dirty fire traps which the city is well rid of. The reports are that they collapsed, killing some of their occupants.

Going still farther south from the region of the hotels, you come into the tenement house district. The main streets from 1st to 9th or 10th south to Branman were lined with small shops. In nearly every block one could

count on finding a butcher shop, a small dry goods or notion store, one or two bakeries or delicatessen stores, a fruit and vegetable stand, a grocery, and two or three saloons. While there were a few large stores, a great deal of the trading was done in these innumerable small shops, from which comparatively poor men have made a bare living. As a rule the family of the proprietor lived at the rear or over his shop, so that the losses have been double ones, the fire sweeping away both homes and means of earning a living.

The little cross streets within these blocks were closely built with tenement houses. The poorer wage-workers lived near the water front of the Southern Pacific terminal. The loss was most complete in these districts because here the frame houses not only covered the whole frontage but there were also many rear tenements. The reports indicate that the fire swept these regions with incredible rapidity. There was scarcely time to save the sick and helpless. We all regret the loss of the precious treasures of art in the splendid structures of Nob Hill, but the owners will probably feel their losses less keenly than these poor outcasts from the tenements. The pathetic household treasures of the poor are gathered slowly, and often paid for week by week from the savings of inadequate wages.

The Mission District.

As we go west into the Mission district, we come to homes of the more prosperous wage workers, and professional or business people of moderate means. A large percentage of these owned or had partly paid for their dwellings. The South Park Settlement was located among the poorer rent-paying workers. We found that as our people gained in property they tended to move away into this district where they could hope to acquire their own homes. Probably many of these are partly protected by insurance, but a large number have seen the results of years of careful planning, hard work, and self-sacrifice swept away in a few minutes. There are also small shops scattered through this Mission district.

Among the manufacturing establishments burned in the south of Market region were tin-can factories and canneries, a number of factories where furniture, store and office fixtures and other cabinet work was done, planing mills, glass factory and wire works, a large lithographing and label establishment, seven large and many small garment-making shops, a number of tobacco factories, and of large candy and cracker factories.

The working people in the south of Market district are chiefly of American or Irish parentage. About 45 per cent of the early foreign immigration to California was Irish and the population of San Francisco has come from other parts of the United States rather than directly from foreign countries. Between Howard and Harrison, east of 10th street were the homes of many of the poorer Jewish families.

Telegraph Hill. The wage-workers north of Market lived about Telegraph Hill. This was sometimes called the Latin quarter, because it contained so many Italians, Spaniards and Portuguese. There were also some Russians and a sprinkling of Irish, Germans and Greeks.

Dating back, back to the days of the forty miners, the region to the south and east of Telegraph Hill, often spoken of as the "Barbara Coast," has contained the lowest dives and criminal haunts of the city. Climbing up over the steep sides of the hill and stretching about its northern and western base were the queer old, ram-shackle frame houses of the fishermen. These Latin people of San Francisco have not seemed to enter the more vigorous trades but have made a precarious living from the sea, or run the small fruit and vegetable stands. They are also the market-gardeners, and divide with people of Swiss parentage, a large part of the dairy business.

The manufacturing establishments in this region included fruit canneries, a large cracker factory, and several tobacco factories.

**The Working
Population.**

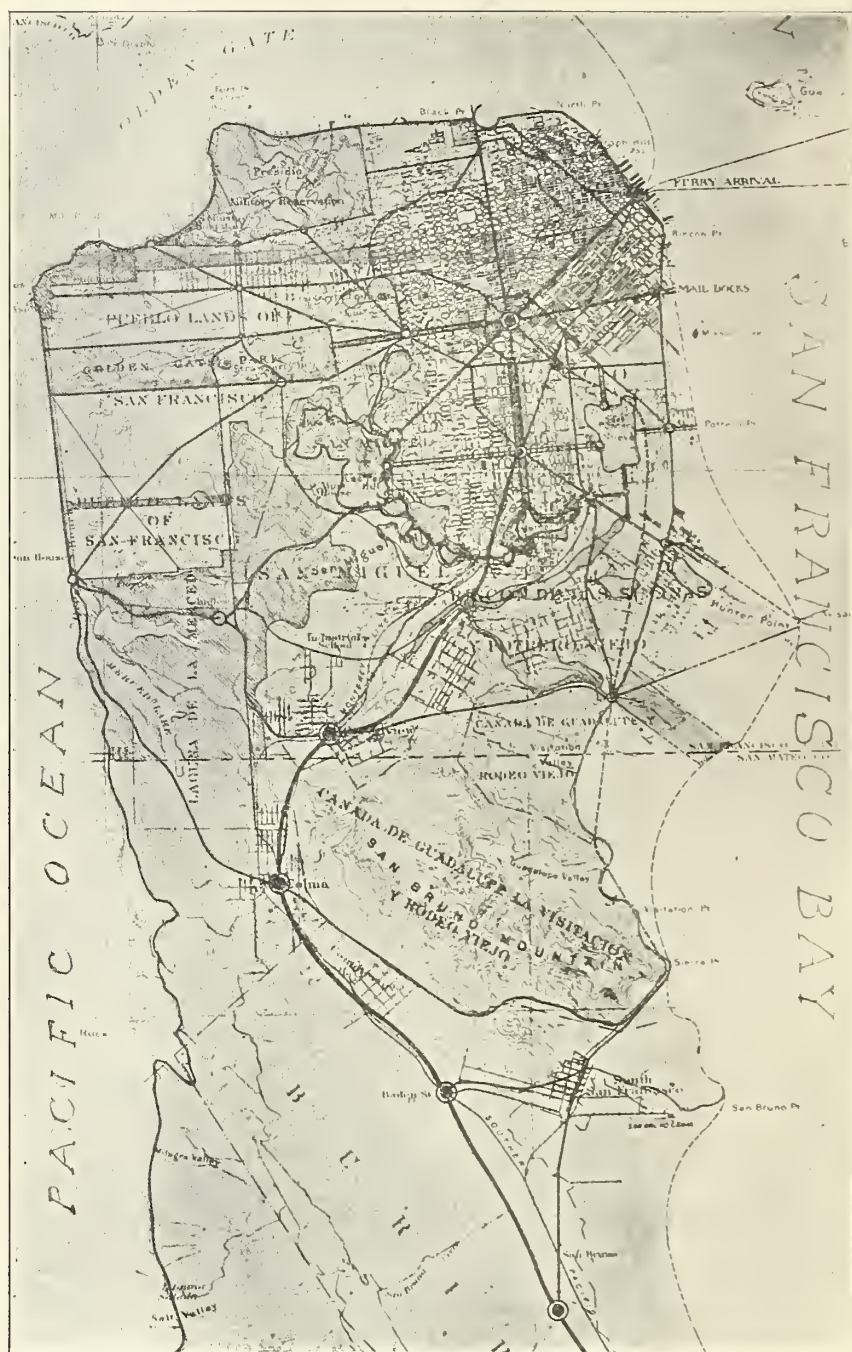
As has been repeatedly pointed out in the reports, the elements did their first and their most far-reaching work among the homes of working people and of the poor. As the wage-workers of San Francisco were quite thoroughly organized one can get some idea of the extent to which they have suffered from the loss of homes and employment by noticing the approximate numbers in the different unions. These claim a total membership of about 60,000 of whom at least 5,000 are women, leaving 55,000 men, who are heads of families or possible contributors to the support of families.

Of the more poorly paid trades whose members probably had families living in the burnt neighborhood, we have first the marine workers. It is estimated by an officer of the sailors' union that of the 3,000 members of this union, probably a thousand made their homes in San Francisco, and not less than 500 had families in the burned district. These sailors are Scandinavians or Irish. Nearly all the 3,000 members of the long-shoremen's union were burned out, and probably a large percentage of them had families dependent on them. This is also true of the 3,500 members of the teamsters' union. The cooks, waiters, barbers and other personal service trades, have in their respective organizations nearly 10,000 members. There are between 3,000 and 4,000 members of the unions of workers in the street car service. The moulders, boilermakers, machinists, and other iron workers number about 12,000 while the building trades claim 20,000 members. The printing trades unions have a membership of about 1,200.

In addition to members of the unions, there was an army of men and women working as clerks, stenographers, book-keepers and porters in the great mercantile establishments. The larger of these often combined the manufacturing with the distribution of their goods, as, for example, furniture stores which maintained upholstery establishments. To

these must be added manufacturing jewelers, goldsmiths and silversmiths, art glass factories, boot and shoe factories, large wholesale importers of spices and coffee who prepared their goods for the market, rope and cordage factories, and countless other minor industries.

If the wholesale plans for reconstruction are carried out, it is probable that there will be employment for a large percentage of the people now in San Francisco, though many may have to accept temporarily, work to which they are unaccustomed. The teamsters and members of the building trades will undoubtedly have more than they can do. If the great plants of the Fulton and Risdon Iron Works and the Union Iron Works are spared, they will have sufficient extra work to absorb some of the machinists and moulders thrown out. Many of the mercantile establishments hope to resume business at once, so that a part of the clerks and office employes will soon be at work. But when the factories decide to resume business, there must be delay before they can take on their old force. They must not only provide places of work but new machinery must be brought from a distance. However, there are factories and buildings suitable for factories outside the burned district, and wherever possible temporary arrangements will no doubt be made such as should enable some to get to work at once. At this writing the re-employment of the thousands of homeless San Francisco wage-workers would seem to depend entirely on the ability of San Francisco business men to secure the necessary capital to enable them to carry out the courageous policy of reconstruction that seems to be the desire of every employer who has yet been heard from. The San Francisco banks must first meet the demands of their destitute depositors. If eastern capitalists can be induced to lend money freely on good business security, there is no reason to fear that the self-reliant working people of San Francisco will long remain in the class of dependents.



Topographical map of San Francisco, showing Mr. Burdham's proposed improvements. The new thoroughfares are shown in heavy black.

The Reconstruction of San Francisco

Archibald A. Hill

Secretary Metropolitan Parks Association, New York, and Secretary to the Slocum Relief Committee of 1904

The economic factors which made San Francisco a great seaport—remain unharmed and assure the rebuilding of the city. The harbor makes it the southwestern gate of entry and departure for the continent. The banks of the city are all solvent as their vaults were found to be undamaged. Many of the large office buildings withstood the earthquake and although gutted by the fire these can be repaired comparatively quickly. The city had in 1900 according to the census of that year more than ten times as many houses of wood as of brick or stone. One reason for this was that owing to the distance from the mills, steel has been unusually high, while lumber has been very cheap. The homes of the working classes have been built mostly of wood and coupled with this was the fact that many of the streets have been narrow, making it exceedingly difficult to fight fire. The representatives of the fire insurance companies have known the risks of such a situation and have organized to prevent the reconstruction of frame buildings in the burned district and to secure wider streets.

But, of more far-reaching concern, many of its best citizens have realized that the plan of San Francisco had many defects (what city has not?) and several years ago called to their assistance Daniel H. Burnham, the landscape architect of Chicago, who was selected by the United States government to make a study of the conditions in Manila. Mr. Burnham made his report some months ago. Before the ashes had cooled these progressive citizens with James D. Phelan, chairman of the finance committee of relief and Red Cross had seized their opportunity and had telegraphed Mr. Burnham to come west at once to advise with them about the city that is to be.

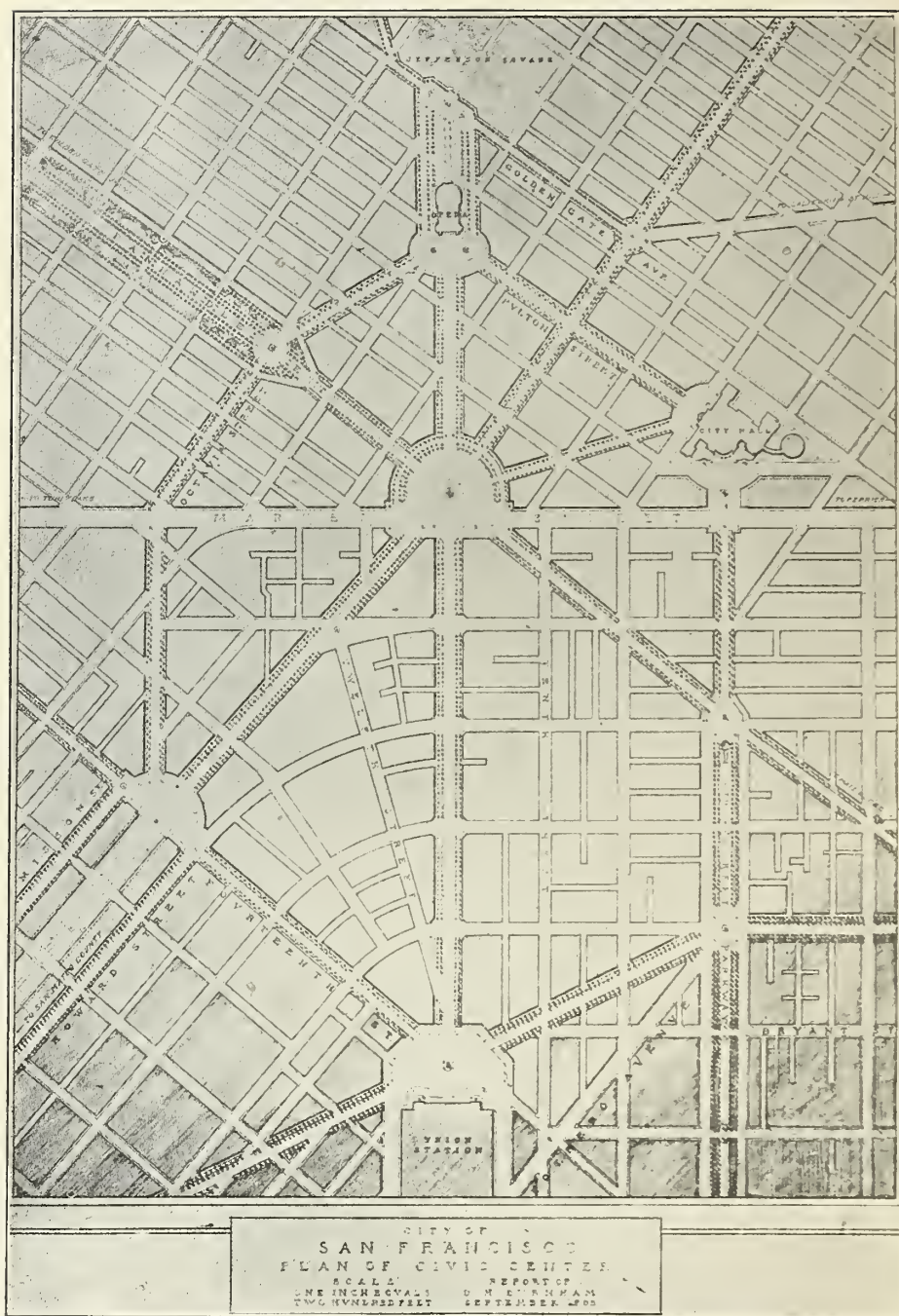
Here then is a new union of forces for the physical rehabilitation of our western metropolis,—the financial interests working to prevent the fire risks

of former days and the aesthetic interests seeking to make a more beautiful city to live in.

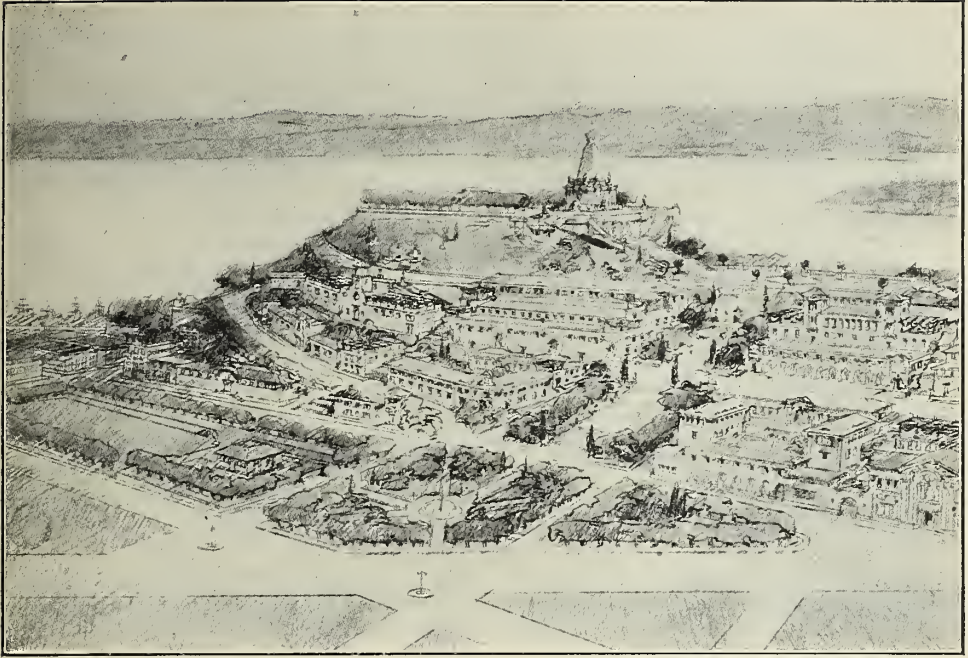
To understand Mr. Burnham's plan it must be remembered that San Francisco is on a stubbed peninsula, shaped not unlike a human hand with the fingers tightly closed. The ocean is on the west and the bay on the east. The main part of the city is on the bay side, and this limited portion is what is commonly called the water front. At the extreme northwest is the Presidio, a large government reservation. South of this, but also on the west, is the beautiful Golden Gate Park, which sheltered so many thousands during the fire. And at the southwest is the lake known as Laguna de la Merced. The city is built upon many hills and near the center of the peninsula are the Twin Peaks.

The main thoroughfare of the city is Market, which begins on the bay and runs southwest. Mr. Burnham's plan begins at the "water front." He would have this made over in such a way that it would be increasingly available as the shipping center but also, by means of modern wharves and piers, would be made beautiful to the eye. Market street would be extended to Twin Peaks and around its base to the ocean. This would give one main thoroughfare entirely across the peninsula. High up on the peaks and overlooking Laguna de la Merced, Golden Gate Park and the ocean he would place an Athenaeum and on the east, overlooking the bay, but nestled among the ravines, a great natural open air stadium. At the base, Market street would open out into a broad plaza with a recreation park. The small recreation parks, of which Mr. Burnham recommends several, are planned in the main to contain features similar to those in the South Park system of Chicago.

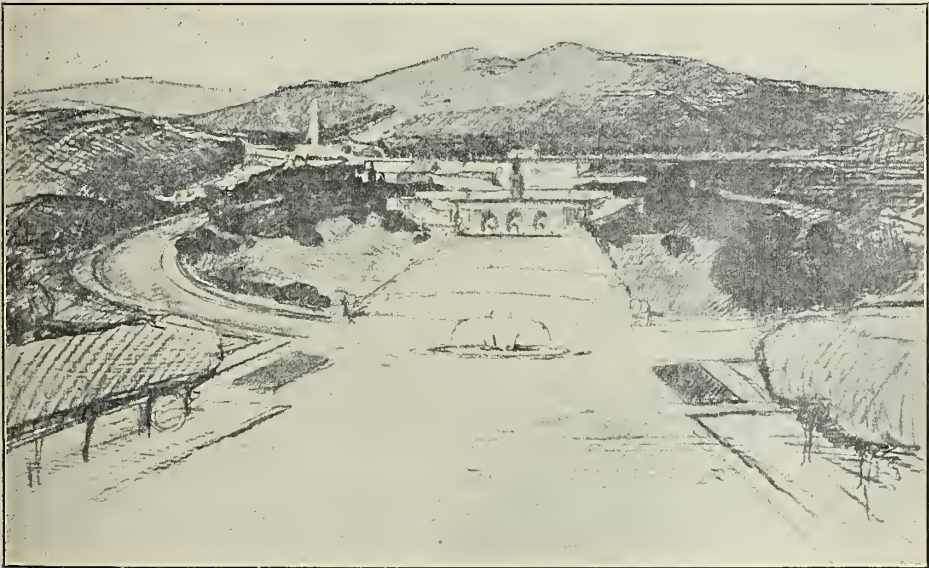
The tops of all the hills according to the plan are to be preserved in a state of nature. The sides are to be terraced and it is suggested that a space of per-



Mr. Burnham's plan for a civic center, San Francisco, with great public buildings at each angle of an octagonal scheme of radiating streets and boulevards.



The proposed embellishment of Telegraph Hill, showing Washington Square and play park.
Type of proposed treatment of hills.



A charcoal sketch of Twin Peaks and the end of Market Street, showing plaza, by E. H. Bennett.

haps one hundred feet be reserved on the lower side of the terraces in order that the views out over the city may be preserved. This would give a peculiarly open and beautiful appearance to the new city. Mr. Burnham also planned that the pan-handle from Golden Gate Park be extended from the present terminus to a point where it would meet Van Ness avenue and Market street. This he would have made a block wide and parked. Around the junction of these three main thoroughfares, a civic center could be created not in the form of an open plaza but rather that of an irregular octagon with the larger portion of the center remaining as it is. Comparatively few new streets would have to be cut, but existing streets would be widened in such a manner that a great public building would be at each angle of the octagon.

From this center additional avenues would be cut in such a way as to open up direct communications with sections which have heretofore been in a measure shut off from the center of the city. As already stated, Market street would give access to the water front and when ex-

tended to the west to Van Ness avenue, to the north, the pan-handle to Golden Gate Park, and new streets to Jefferson Park, the mail docks and the Mission district. This scheme would not only assure beauty but would also prevent congestion both of population and traffic. An ocean drive is also planned and the Presidio is also a factor in the Burnham city scheme, approached in such a way that all the residents of San Francisco can secure its advantages.

In crippling San Francisco's resources, the destruction of the city may prevent the undertaking of the more elaborate improvements of the Burnham plan at this time, but on the other hand the clearing of the ground may admit of even more radical planning for the future. Late despatches are to the effect that Mayor Schmitz is to appoint a commission. Not only in outlining broad plans for civic beauty, but in setting standards which will place the new San Francisco at the lead of modern communities in the sanitary housing of its working population, is the opportunity one big with possibilities.

After the Deluge

**The Varied Outcroppings of Charitable Impulse After a Great Calamity
—The "Yegg" and the Bogus Solicitor**

James Forbes

A calamity precipitated and accompanied by manifestations of the most awe-inspiring of elemental forces renders a quarter of a million human beings homeless in a few hours, violates the sacredness of death and almost instantly shatters the intensely complicated, interdependent and seemingly ultimate mechanism of a modern city. At once the shock is registered in every part of that greater body of which the stricken city is a member and sympathetic remedial action is as inevitable as it is necessary.

Allowing for self-interest, advertising devices, and the heady emotionalism of the crowd, there remains in probably a majority of the relief enterprises announced while the shadow of catastrophe still lay heavy on the land, a strong, even predominating undercurrent of pure

good will, justifying humanity and realizing in part even though but momentarily, something of the brotherhood of man.

It may be of interest to record here a few of the multitudinous channels through which, in New York city, by way of example, the flood of relief has poured and indeed still pours, though now in diminished volume.

The great funds of the Chamber of Commerce and Stock Exchange have naturally attracted some of the very large contributions of financiers, corporations and wealthy individuals. The local office of the National Red Cross has drawn upon a wider field embracing all manner of subscriptions, large and small, and in particular receiving the bulk of all supplies given. Mr. Hearst's *American* fund has enjoyed perhaps an equal, or even

wider range than the Red Cross, recording alike the large subscriptions of capitalists and the mites of sweat shop workers. But the Mayor's Relief Committee fund, as the city's official relief fund, has received not only many of the larger contributions of all types, but has become the depository of the aggregate collected by the more obscure, picturesque and even dubious efforts.

Of the larger contributions received by this fund, the most striking, perhaps, were those of the anonymous "Friend of Humanity" who walked into the city hall and laid down twenty-five one thousand dollar gold certificates, and of another anonymous donor who contributed \$10,000 in somewhat similar manner. To this committee also have come sums raised by the many theatrical benefit performances, church collections, and many thousands of dollars collected in a few days by the Salvation Army's tripods and money-pots, street corner reminiscences of Christmas.

Pugilists, too, have turned newsboys and vie with actresses selling flowers, in getting fancy prices for their wares. Players, not content alone with crowded houses and boxes selling at \$1,000 pass the hat among their audiences, start miniature department stores with goods commandeered by fair guerillas from good-natured storekeepers, or even act as cashiers in hotel bars the receipts of which go to swell the fund. Labor unions send substantial contributions and in many factories the employees give a day's pay to the fund, or give liberally to collections in its behalf. At the race track young women in automobiles receive contributions from bookmakers and race-goers. Children empty their toy banks into the fund's coffers and Chinatown sends its delegation of wide-sleeved merchants with their countrymen's quota. Artists hold exhibitions and donate their works to charity, while professional clairvoyants and even massage parlors spend money profusely to advertise their own particular generosity. Nor must we forget that the entire country duplicates in generosity and versatility of device the activities of New York.

Much as we may regret the necessity of voicing a warning at this time, there

is a serious menace involved in this very versatility of device and general loosening of purse-strings.

Now, that the first horror has passed, and though a majority of men are the better for kindly deeds and emotions, nature's step-children, awe-recovered, unregenerate, have commenced to leave their lairs, impelled by the leaven of evil working within them to act according to the laws of their kind. While ruin still clutched San Francisco by the throat, human wolves staked their lives against the chance to steal a stray gold piece or a jewel. Now human rats and weasels, more skillful, persistent and dangerous are everywhere actively at work.

The financial district of New York city affords a gauge in matters of this kind. In this and adjoining districts, upon April 26 alone, five impostors were arrested by the police while operating with bogus subscription-lists, and a number of similar impostors escaped. It may be confidently asserted that from this time on a flood of subscription-list impostors, gaining in volume from month to month, will visit every community, unless, by little short of a miracle, business men everywhere can be induced to exercise the first elements of caution in giving.

For the sake of genuine sufferers and the cause of legitimate charity, as well as for those who seek to live by fraud no less than for society's sake, business men should everywhere and always acquaint themselves from a disinterested and efficient source of information as to the merits of the cause to which they may be asked to give.

New York business men in particular are apt to be approached. Make no exceptions, least of all to the sleek lynxes, incredibly persuasive and admirably well-informed who may exhibit the names of famous houses upon their lists, but who, to the initiated, mirror but 42nd street and Broadway, the gambler and the confidence operator. Nor is it charity to fling a careless bill, with or without the use of a perhaps honored name, to the peaked, wizened wreck of ex-messenger boy or former bank clerk, the exhausted "tailings" of

the down-town pool rooms. The possibly somewhat ebullient young ladies who are "from the South" and hint at "society buds selling tickets for sweet charity" are not apt to assay any better than the middle aged campaigners of their sex who perforce seek the aid of sober colors and kindly veils to hide the hard lines of calculation. Nor does a pseudo-clerical garb, or the physical possession of what purports to be the uniform of some "relief" or "gospel army" constitute a reliable introduction. Too often it but seeks to veil the brand of Sodom and Lesbos.

Though for the present, and especially in cities and towns, imposture in the name of the San Francisco calamity will probably be attempted in most instances by means of bogus subscription lists and collections for bogus charities, the selling of tickets for entertainments engineered by professional charity promoters, and the irresponsible pleas of visionaries and ill-balanced persons of perhaps good intentions, the professional tramp and mendicant must by no means be overlooked. He may be depended upon to operate energetically and extensively in his particular field. It is undoubtedly true that at the present time some thousands of professional "yegg" tramps and mendicants of both sexes, and more especially those who usually confine their operations to the middle-west and southwest, are on their way to or are already invading, the state of California, which has long sheltered a large aggregation of impostors of the tramp-mendicant type. It is said by those in a position to know that the Galveston disaster was the direct means of increasing, by several thousands, the criminal population of Texas. Criminals of all types, but more especially mendicants of the "yegg" class attracted by the excitement and the possibilities of loot, flocked into Texas, found climatic conditions satisfactory and the people generous, and have since saddled themselves permanently upon the community.

In California climatic conditions are in great part as favorable to the "yegg" as in Texas, while the careless generosity of the people is probably even greater than that of the Texan. San

Francisco, too, with its reputation of being a "wide-open" town, has always been popular with the tramp, and has produced a large number of "yeggs" and other criminals who rank high in the world of crime. Only the long "jumps" between San Francisco and Sacramento or San Francisco and Los Angeles, the nearest large cities, and the hardships of "making" the mountain divisions of the trans-continental railroad systems have stood in the way of giving San Francisco a popularity among tramps second only to that of New York. It may be asserted confidently that the plague of begging imposters of all types, now invading California, irresistibly attracted by the excitement incident to the destruction of a great city, the momentary disorganization of social forces, and the human impossibility of guarding efficiently and humanely against impostors at such a time, will for years to come impose on the generous credulity of the west.

Not in California alone will the mendicant revel in imposture, but every city and town in North America which tolerates mendicancy in any form will be imposed upon by false San Francisco "sufferers" for a generation to come. Unfortunately experience indicates how little healthy public sentiment exists in general on the question of mendicancy and we must be content to leave to the future practically the whole question in so far as the mendicant is concerned. In the matter of bogus "collectors," however, the possibilities are better for immediate systematic co-operation against such impostors. The only sane and safe proceeding for any business man approached by unknown persons for a subscription, whether in the name of the San Francisco sufferers or any other alleged charitable enterprise, is to withhold from giving until advised by some responsible local body (such an endorsement committee as San Francisco itself had or a local charity organization society) that the solicitor or solicitors are properly authorized, and the cause they represent worthy of support. Organized charity is well equipped in this particular.¹

¹The New York Charity Organization Society in particular possesses, in its Bureau of Advice and Information, an admirable agency for the advancement of good works and the exposure of frauds.

Slav Emigration at Its Source

Emily Greene Balch

V.—Emigration from Galicia; Austrian Poles and Ruthenians

This is the fifth of a series of articles giving some of the results of Miss Balch's studies in Austria-Hungary. Previous installments appeared in the issues of January 6, February 3, March 3 and April 7.

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To many people the word Galicia probably suggests little—if happily it does not vaguely recall the Spanish province of the same name or even the epistle to the Galatians. Perhaps if the country is referred to instead as Austrian Poland it seems more tangible and Cracow and Lemberg sound as if we knew something about them. But to me at least they conveyed no idea of the reality until I read that inimitable sketch of Miss Dowie's called *A Girl in the Carpathian Mountains* and learned for the first time, among other things, that there were people called Ruthenians and that they as well as Poles inhabited Galicia!

It is from the northern slopes of these Carpathian mountains or hills that the larger part of the Galician emigrants to America come and they, even more generally than the Slovaks, are peasants suffering from excessive subdivision of the land and often also from unfavorable soil and climate.

In high lying spots the snow sometimes lasts till May and falls again in October, so that even oats do not always ripen but may have to be cut green to serve merely as fodder.

The living is notoriously poor, rye bread, potatoes, cabbage, "mamaliga," (corn meal porridge), and milk, if there is a cow—these are the staples. Meat is often afforded only at Christmas and Easter but there may often be a chicken or duck on the Sunday table.

The population is mainly Polish in the west and Ruthenian in the east, the center and for a considerable way westward along the Carpathians on the southern frontier. In fact the mountain folk, the Górale, are a much mixed population, a puzzle to ethnologists. The Carpathians, which except for the group of peaks called the high Tatras are not

lofty and have been no great barrier to the intermingling of the elements on the two slopes. The Slovaks of upper Arva show the influence of their Polish neighbors across the range to the north and the Ruthenians, as we shall see, extend continuously across the chain into Hungary. Beside this as we go further east the Roumanian blood becomes perceptible.

These mountains were formerly the haunts of brigands who still figure in legend, song, and dance. The tales of *Przerwa-Tetmajer*, translated into German as *Aus der Tatra*, are full of them and the novel of Emil Franzos *For the Right* is the story of a Ruthenian peasant driven to revolt and outlawry by his inner insistent demand for righteousness.

Although the Ruthenian district is much more extensive than the Polish, the Poles seem to be the more numerous group, but it is impossible to get precise figures.¹

In the case of both nationalities Galicia is only a part of their home territory, but to consider this it will be necessary to take them up separately.

The Poles Under Three Masters.

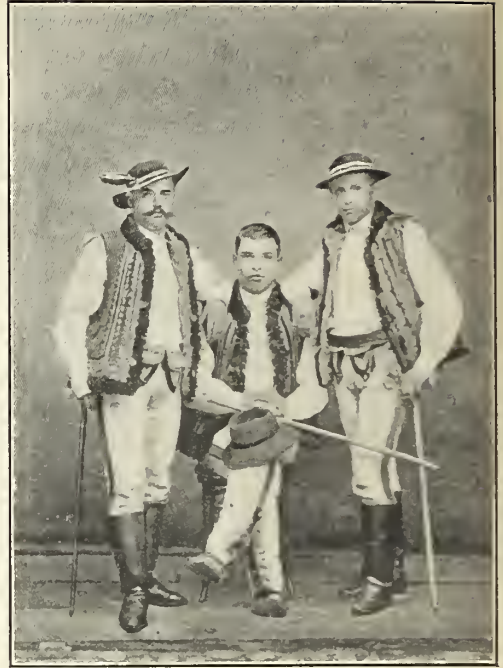
Of the sad history of Poland, ruined at once by its unfortunate internal conditions and by its lack of natural boundaries, everyone knows something. Once stretching from the Baltic nearly to the Black Sea and embracing a territory greater than the present Austria-Hun-

[¹The census of 1900 gives fifty-five per cent speaking Polish and forty-two per cent speaking Ruthenian, but the Jews, who are some eleven per cent of the population, confuse this test of nationality. It is commonly assumed in Galicia that a Roman Catholic is a Pole and that an adherent of the Greek rite is a Ruthenian, so much so that steamship agents put down a Roman Catholic as a Pole on the immigration department forms without regard to language or affinities. This criterion would give the Poles forty-six per cent, the Ruthenians forty-two, the Jews eleven per cent.]

gary, it is now divided between the three neighboring empires, and lives as a political entity only in history and in the never-failing hopes of its children. The final adjustment of the prey gave Russia the lion's share with two-thirds of the inhabitants and more than three-quarters of the territory. Austria received only some twelve per cent of the territory, but of the sixteen millions or so of Poles about one-fifth live on Austrian soil mainly in Galicia, with a smaller body in the neighboring territory of Silesia.

The condition of the Poles under their three different sovereigns differs considerably. In German Poland, along with order and opportunity to progress along German lines, has gone the most determined effort to suppress national feeling and to wipe out the Polish language.

In Russian Poland while there is not the racial contempt for all things Slavic which the German is too apt to feel, the Poles have suffered from directly oppressive special legislation, as well as from the tyranny and corruption which have been the curse of all parts of Russia, and of late of course from the disturbed



Polish mountaineers (gorale) from Zakopane, a favorite summer resort of the Poles



Polish girls from the Tatra.

condition of the empire. On the other hand the country, especially about Warsaw and Lodz, has become a great industrial center, protected by Russian tariffs and enjoying the vast Russian home market. Here for the first time in their history the Poles, who have always been either nobles or peasants, have developed a middle class, commercial and industrial.

In Austria the government has for some time pursued a policy friendly to the Poles, but nowhere else among them are the economic conditions so bad. Lacking capital and commercial traditions, and in an unfavorable geographical situation, it is very difficult to create an industry which can compete with the highly developed production of Silesia, Moravia, and Bohemia, which lie just to the west and are within the same customs territory. The home market in Galicia itself is restricted by poverty and inertia, and all the country to the eastward, where Galicia would have a slight advantage of propinquity, is cut off by tariff walls. Agriculture for the most

part is not very flourishing in Europe generally, except in capitalistic and intensive forms like the beet-sugar industry. In a country like Bohemia this not only furnishes employment in field and factory, but supplies the neighboring farmers with fertilizer and extremely valuable feed for their cattle. But Galicia has little of such commercialized agriculture. Mining, except salt mining, is not of any importance, but considerable petroleum is produced. This, however, is largely in the hands of capitalists from outside the country, in some cases of Americans, and brings comparatively little money into Galicia.

The Polish district, however, is perhaps more advanced industrially than the Ruthenian or eastern part of Galicia.

The Little Russians (Ruthenians). The Ruthenians or Little Russians ¹ have, like the Poles, only a minority of their nationality in Galicia. Out of some thirty millions over two-thirds live in southern Russia, especially in the Ukraine, whence they spread over eastern Galicia, the western part of the Bukovina, and across the mountains into northeastern Hungary, occupying in all a continuous territory half as large again as the German empire.²

Their history, though less well known than that of the Poles, is also ancient and romantic. Their chief city, Kieff, was the capital of the country before Moscow was founded in the middle of the twelfth century. When soon after, the invasions of the Tatars began, the wide open

steppes of the Ukraine lay exposed to their raids and thus were created the conditions which moulded the wild, roving life of the Zaporogian Cossacks such as Gogol, himself a Little Russian, has painted in his immortal story, *Taras Bulba*. Although they had been free as the winds and had known neither serfdom nor hereditary rulers, they fell later under the domination of Poles and Russians and found them hard masters. Serfdom especially was odious to this liberty-loving people, and their bitter resentment of tyranny has been attested not only by the revolt under Chmyelnicki in 1648 (pictured from the Polish point of view by Sienkiewicz in his famous historical romance, *With Fire and Sword*, and in that of a half century later under Mazeppa (known to us mainly by the incident of his youth popularized by Byron and the circus), but by peasant risings of recent years.

Of all Slavic peoples perhaps the Little Russians are most celebrated for their profusion of popular lyrics. One collector gathered eight thousand, with variants, in a single district. These songs are of love and war, of haughty Poles and cruel Tatars and love-sick maidens, and are apt to be mournful and tender.

I am told that here in America the Ruthenians continue to produce new songs, but that their American lyrics telling of work in the dark mine and of the hardness of the "boss" are neither so fine nor so free in spirit as the old.

Not only in folk song but in modern literature the Little Russians have an honorable place. They had free printing presses for secular as well as religious literature as early as the sixteenth century, but many of their best writers, including Gogol, have used the Great Russian language even when their themes were Little Russian. In 1798 began a renaissance of the language as a literary medium, and they have since produced authors of international repute, the greatest of whom is the poet Shevchenko. They, like Russians and Servians, use the Cyrillic characters, but the best authorities seem to agree that their tongue is not to be considered as a dialect, but as a distinct language.

[¹ This interesting nationality is known by a confusing multiplicity of names. Some call themselves simply Russians wishing to merge with the great Russians predominant in the empire of the Czar. The official Russian term for them is Little Russians (Malo-Russians). Again they are called, from words used by themselves, Russniaks or Rusinians. The name Ukrainian refers to the great Ukrainian district of Southern Russia and its use generally implies a desire for a separate political future for the nationality. The name Ruthenian, which the Germans, and, I think, our ethnologists mainly use, commonly refers especially to those living in Austria and Hungary.]

² They are distributed as follows:

Russia (estimated)	26,000,000
Galicia	3,074,798
Bukovina	297,798
Hungary	429,447

As immigrants, however, the importance of the different groups is in a very different ratio. In 1905 the United States received 14,473 Ruthenians as follows:

From Russia	178
" Galicia and the Bukovina	10,982
" Hungary	3,268



Ruthenian Woman.

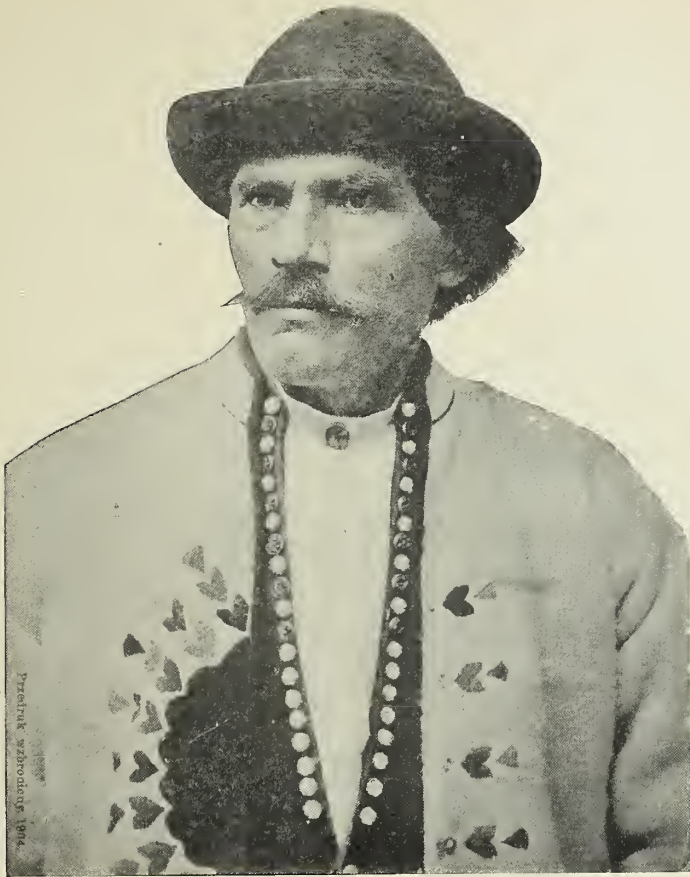
**The Cleavage
in Race
and Religion.**

One curse of Galicia is the cleavage between Poles and Ruthenians, accentuated as this is by differences of race, language, social class, politics and religion. A great blot on the fair name of the Polish republic was the subjection and degradation of her peasantry, and the insolence of her noble landlords. In the districts of Eastern Galicia, where Polish lords were set over a Ruthenian peasantry, this subjection was embittered by the fact that the Little Russian had always been a freeman, and by the intolerance of the Pole to a class not only socially inferior, but alien in speech and above all in religion. For the Poles, in spite of some stirrings of Protestantism and even of Unitarianism in Poland in the reformation period, have been almost universally

extremely zealous Roman Catholics.

The Little Russians, on the other hand, had always been one in religion with the Russians, but in 1595, after various previous attempts, the Jesuits succeeded in bringing large numbers over from the Greek Orthodox into the Roman fold. They accepted allegiance to the pope on very favorable terms, however, and were allowed to keep so much of what had always been peculiar to the orthodox church that these Uniates or Greek Catholics, as they are called, were still separated from the Poles by marked religious differences.

The married priests with their long beards, the mass in Slavonic instead of in Latin, the arrangement of the church with the great gilt screen, the ikonostas hiding the altar, the communion in both kinds given to the laity, the calendar thir-



Ruthenian from the Bukovina.

teen days behind the Roman—all these things make the Greek Catholic strange to the Roman Catholic in spite of the fact that they are in full communion, members of the same church.

Almost the only marks of the severance of the Greek Catholics from the Greek Orthodox and of their Roman connection is the prayer for the pope, which replaces that for the czar as head of the church, and the passage in the creed which affirms the procession of the Holy Ghost from the Son as well as from the Father.



We have many such churches in America, generally easily recognizable by the display of their peculiar form of the cross with three transverse bars, the lower one oblique. In these churches one sees, here and in Eur-

ope, the most naïve and touching demonstrations of piety. The head is bared before the crucifix which stands before the church; on entering the building the forehead is touched again and again to the ground, the ikons are kissed with fervor, the wonderful chanting of the Greek rite which permits no instrumental music, fills the building.

By no means all Ruthenians in Austria and Hungary are Greek Catholics. A considerable number, mainly however in the Bukovina, are still orthodox.

Unfortunately the political and religious difficulties of the old country are imported to this. Poles and Ruthenians are apt to clash. Not only so, but the Russian state church, which maintains a mission in this country and counts some fifty orthodox churches in the

United States proper, beside an equal number in Alaska, is regarded with great jealousy by Catholics, both Greek and Roman, as proselytizing.

After this consideration of the two nationalities of Galicia, let us turn to the history of their emigration. Here, too, it will be necessary to consider them separately.

The Coming of the Poles.

Polish emigration, like Bohemian, has a long past—even without counting John of Kolna, who is said to have commanded Danish ships that rounded the coast of Labrador in 1476 and a couple of settlers of the colonial period, or dwelling too much on the revolutionary heroes Kosciuszko and Pulaski; and Niemcewicz, friend and biographer of Washington, who is an important figure in Polish literary history. The revolutionary movements of 1831 and 1848 sent us refugees, and in 1863 a Polish paper was being published in New York and collecting subscriptions for "the January rebellion," among them some from "Poles of the faith of Moses." In 1854 some 300 Polish families emigrated from Prussian Silesia to Texas, where they founded a settlement named for the Virgin, Panna Marya.

But during this period the movement was still essentially sporadic, and in spite of the brilliant record of Polish citizens in the Civil War, their numbers remained small. In 1860 the census notes 7,298 natives of Poland; in 1870, 14,436. Natives of Bohemia were then 40,289.

It was in the decade 1870-1880 that emigration began in earnest, and the census of 1880 shows 48,557, a gain in ten years of nearly thirty-five thousand. This was, however, mainly from German Poland. Nevertheless Austrian Poland (Galicia) began in this decade to lose population by emigration where in the ten years previous it had gained by migration to the extent of 67,000 net.

As so often proves to be the case, emigration to America was only one part of a wider migratory movement. The Poles had long been going as settlers either to Eastern Galicia, the Bukovina, or across the Dnieper in Russia. In the early seventies, when this no longer afforded sufficient outlet, a movement began to the

industrial regions of Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia and lower Austria; also, with varying fates, to different parts of South America, and to some extent to the United States.

This current once started flowed on at an accelerating rate. In the last six years, 1900-1905, Austria-Hungary, which in this connection practically means Galicia, has sent us 194,000 Poles, Russia about an equal number (191,000), and Germany not much over one-tenth as many. The Galician contingent has steadily increased (except for the lull of the presidential year), rising from 2,280 in 1899-1900 to 50,785 in 1904-5. The same is true of the Russian Poles, while German Polish immigrants have of late been absolutely decreasing.

The general tendency of the movement of emigration to America has been to spread from west to east, from the Germans to the German Poles, from them to the Austrian Poles in western Galicia and from them to the Ruthenians of eastern Galicia and the Bukovina.

The Ruthenian Movement.

The Ruthenian emigration, while smaller and later than the Polish, has grown much faster. The Ruthenian total for the last six years is only about fifty thousand, hardly more than a quarter of that of the Austrian Poles, but while the annual immigration of the latter multiplied something over twice in that time, the Ruthenians multiplied over five times, (1900, 2,832; 1905, 14,473). Of the Ruthenian immigrants of 1905 over two-thirds came from Austria (*sc.* Galicia), about a fifth from Hungary and from the Russian millions not 200 individuals.

Among the Ruthenians large numbers of these intending to settle as colonists in America, go not to the United States, but to Canada, where they can more easily get land. As regards the Bukovina, this is true of the great bulk of the Ruthenian emigration, so that, although this is considerable it does not directly concern the United States.

The Ruthenians are said to succeed better than any other nationality in Canada, and in losing them we lose a very sturdy and gifted contingent, although one of the most backward in culture.

It is worth noting, too, that Ruthenians in the United States often save money to buy a farm, and go to Canada to buy it. I cannot measure how frequent this is, but I was told in various places in Galicia, "It is not easy to *settle* in the United States. They either go to Canada or return home." And I have heard of cases in America, one of which is worth telling.

The story was related to me by a Prot-

up-stairs rooms of his little house, of this ultimatum. They might of course go to the saloon, but if they stayed on with him, they must bring no drink home. Some left, most remained. The man himself soon after joined the church, and later through his influence sixteen of the eighteen boarders did likewise. The process continuing, he came one day to the minister and asked him if he thought it would do to take fewer boarders. His



Ruthenian peasant from the upper valley of the Prut with wooden ware such as is the product of a considerable house industry.

estant missionary in one of the most neglected factory slums it has ever been my lot to see.

A Ruthenian who had been coming to the services of this missionary told him one evening that he had had a christening at his home the day before, "the evil had conquered him" and there had been drinking; but it was the last time that liquor should come into his house. He notified the eighteen boarders, who, in day and night shifts, occupied the two

wife had no time to go to church. He did cut the number down by successive moves to four men, trying to give his wife time to let him teach her to read. Finally he said that he wanted to live like the Americans, with no boarders and a parlor where no one slept. This, too, was accomplished, and the man and his wife and little children occupied a three-room house, with no outsiders. But at this point in his career he had saved money enough to go to farming—if I



Galician Jew.

remember rightly, \$3,000, and went, as I said, to Canada to settle.

Economic Character of the Immigration. As regards the industrial character of Polish and Ruthenian immigrants, about three-quarters of both nationalities are entered as laborers and a fifth more as servants.¹ But in this connection it must be noted that while the United States authorities provide the headings, *laborer, farm laborer, and farmer*, the figures do not give the measure of these classes. For instance, an emigration agent in Galicia, whose business it is to fill out these blanks, told me that if a man has no special trade, he enters him as a laborer, even if he has been a peasant who did no work for wages, but farmed his own land independently. He "considered the matter mainly *with reference to what the man would become in America*." This prophetic method of dealing with the facts naturally vitiates the fig-

ures and makes it impossible to get from them any answer to the important questions as to what proportion are agriculturalists, and of these what proportion are independent property owners.

For Galicia these questions are practically answered by the Austrian census figures. Galicia is an overwhelmingly agricultural country. Agriculture, understanding this to include stockraising, forestry and allied occupations, employs more than eighty-seven of every hundred occupied persons. This, with over three per cent in military and governmental service, leaves less than ten per cent for industry, mining and transportation. Now the Jews, who are the main commercial class, are alone eleven per cent of the total population.

Of those occupied in agriculture, over eighty-three per cent. are independent producers or members of their families working with them.

This means of course that the great mass of the Polish and Ruthenian popu-

¹ Immigration Department figures of 1904-5 for occupied immigrants.

lation are peasants—men with a little piece of land held by father and forefathers, back indefinitely into the feudal past. The peasant is a perfectly different type from the workingman. He has not his quickness nor all that he has gained in intelligence and self-reliance through competition, frequent change of place, and the trituration of city and factory life. On the other hand he has the conservatism, the solidity, the shrewdness, the self-respect that go with prop-

children and have come to be excessively cut up.

Of all the agricultural properties in the country, nearly 80 per cent are "small" (that is, under twelve and a half acres), and *nearly half have less than five acres.*

The situation is graphically shown by the fact that of these engaged in agriculture, only nine per cent are day laborers and six per cent farm servants, that is men and women hired by the year.

That this excessive subdivision is the



Ruthenian girl with embroidered sheepskin coat and characteristic embroidery on her linen sleeves.

erty, independence, and an assured social position—a position in a fixed scale of values in which the peasant is as definitely the superior of the cottager, the day laborer, and the farm servant as he is definitely the inferior of the nobility, the large landlords.

**Agrarian
Subdivision
a Cause of
Migration.**

In Galicia the holdings of the peasants, which feudal arrangements formerly kept intact and of regulation size, have since 1868 been freely divided between

main cause of emigration from Galicia is obvious and undisputed. When a man can no longer support himself on his own land, much less provide for his children, he probably gets into debt and at any rate is in imperative need of money. The fear of falling from the social position of a peasant to that, immeasurably inferior, of a day laborer, is the great spur which drives over seas alike the Slovak, the Pole, and the Ruthenian. To get money, paying work must be found.

Now machinery, rising wages, and the breaking up of large estates have lessened the demand for farm labor. Industry there is practically none. A regular seasonal emigration to Germany carries a horde of "Sachsengänger" across the border and back every summer, but increasing numbers reason, "if we must leave home, why not go further where wages are largest and stay till we have earned what we need." So the father goes himself or sends his son to get money to redeem or to enlarge the farm.

The money for the passage seems very frequently to be borrowed, if from neighbors then without any guarantee and *without interest*. A Jew takes from six to ten per cent. A peasant can always get credit and never fails to pay. If he is actually unable to do so, his brother assumes the debt. He almost never sells his land (unless going definitely as a colonist), though he may raise money by selling a cow or a couple of pigs or what not. Sometimes the land is leased to a neighbor, the rent being paid beforehand at the rate of seven or eight gulden a yoke. It is less and less customary to resort to the Jewish lenders for a loan, especially in western Galicia, where the peasants are more prudent, but even among the Ruthenians money is now more often borrowed from credit establishments.

As to women emigrants I heard some interesting statements. Of late many peasant girls go to America to earn money. Very often the girl goes over while her intended is serving his three years in the army, and earns enough to prepay his passage. This is in all cases regarded as a debt and he always repays the money. There is no common property till after marriage. Forty girls went recently to Chicago to do embroidery which they had learned here (my informant was of Cracow). Some are "coffee cooks" in hotels. Many of course, especially Ruthenians, go as servants.

**Illiteracy—
But Growing
Intelligence.**

The Galician emigrants, being, as we have shown, almost wholly peasants in a very small way, it is not surprising to find them largely illiterate. Our immigration figures for 1905 make the Ruthenians, with 63 per cent illiterates, the

lowest in the scale except the Portuguese with 67. Poles (from all three empires), with 40, rank better than the South Italians or Lithuanians.

In Galicia one hears much complaint of the lack of schools, which are said to be even scarcer, relative to the population, in the west than in the east. The peasants often combine and hire a teacher independently for themselves for the winter to teach men, women and children alike. In such places almost every one can read and write. On the other hand, in a place near Gorlice the doctor told us that in his district there were only nine schools among thirty villages, and that these were so poor that he did not think a quarter of the scholars learned even to read. Sometimes if a teacher complains of truancy, he is boycotted, sometimes he is placated with little bribes of eggs and so forth.

But conditions are improving. According to the Galician figures of 1900 for the Poles, while the older men, those from thirty to fifty years old, showed nearly 40 per cent who could neither read nor write, among boys of ten to twenty the figure sank below 27. Among Ruthenians the improvement was much greater—from nearly 80 to under 37.

Intelligence is growing; there is more idea of the world and more desire for education for the children, especially in western Galicia, and this means that emigration will go on increasing. That it will do so largely seems to be the general opinion.

Beside the excessive subdivision of land, contributory causes of emigration are doubtless usury and debt, taxes and intemperance, all largely interrelated and all intimately connected with the economic role of the Jew. Even more than among the Slovaks, one hears here bitter complaints of the Jew both as usurer and as publican. Here the old feudal rule which gave the large land owners the monopoly of the drink traffic, has lasted, at least as regards retail sale, and the Jew is the usual lessee of this monopoly called in Polish *propinacja*, in German *propinationsrecht*. By a recent law this right expires in 1910, and then I am told, the United States may expect

to receive some ten thousand, Jewish liquor dealers, no longer able to sell drink at home. Sincerely as one must admire the fine qualities of the Jews, this can hardly seem a bright prospect. It may be that our vast stores of temperance zeal might be turned to advantage to add a clause to our immigration law forbidding the entrance of those whose business has

been liquor selling, but it could hardly be enforced if passed.

**The Interaction
Between
Galicia and
America.**

An interesting result of the emigration to America, and this not alone in Galicia, is the buying up of land with "American money." The large land-owner who farms for profit, is caught between the upper and nether millstone.



Lads like these, piping among their sheep beside a brook or dancing with their sweethearts on the grass seem to us absolutely Arcadian. On our streets speaking broken and vulgarized English, dressed in ill-fitting ready-made clothes, bewildered by their strange surroundings they are too apt to seem to us "stolid," "low," "mere animals." But behind the glamor of our sentimentalism as behind the veil of our lack of sympathy and understanding the man is the same man—like the rest of us a strange mixture of spirit and brute.

Grain from America, North and South, has lowered prices, emigration has raised wages, and the influx of money specially destined for buying land has increased land values. Moreover, the aristocratic landlord is too often unbusinesslike and self indulgent, a poor manager. The consequence is that large estates come into the market and are bought up by peasants for small lots. In Galicia alone some 50,000 to 90,000 acres are "parzeliert" in this way annually. Interesting instances of this process were related to me among the Ruthenians in Hungary. In one case an estate of some 700 acres was for sale. A hundred or so peasants acting together bought this for \$40,000. In another case where some \$64,000 was to be paid, a lawyer offered to procure the money for them on easy terms, but they said, "Oh, no, we will send to America for it," and they did so. They paid \$24,000 down, and \$40,000 more was sent in the course of two years from America to complete the payment. To show how values have risen—this land which sold for \$64,000 was perhaps a fifth part of an estate which was bought about 1870 for something over \$8,000.

The conditions of life among the peasants differ of course from place to place, and vary as they do everywhere else, according to the character of individuals. From what I have heard, as well as from what I saw, I should say that in general things were poorer in Galicia than among the Slovaks. In the establishment of a peasant family near Lemberg, better off than many, with a whole series of small farm buildings grouped about the house—granary, barn, wattled bin for Indian corn, cow stall and so forth—the old peasant mother and what we saw of her house would have done credit to any shum, and the farm maid slept in the little, dark, filthy cow-house, where there was no trace of any regard for health or comfort, unless a hole for shoveling manure out on to the heap outside could be called that.

One gets a vivid picture of the life of such a maid in Miss Dowie's book already referred to.

As I paint this dark picture I think of another village, as it happened a Ruthenian one this time, where the friendly

and intelligent priest took us to call in one peasant home after another. In spite of primitive conditions, we saw wholesome, friendly, attractive family scenes. Many had been to America, and one woman, about to rejoin her husband and keep boarders for him at Duquesne, near Pittsburg, invited me to visit her there with a promise of anything I would like to drink, whiskey, rum or—hastily—ginger beer, if I would come.

I have since been to see her in Duquesne, and found her established, without boarders, in fairly pleasant and quite well-furnished rooms. She was washing in a clean kitchen where the little girl, sick with scarlet fever, sat in a rocking chair by the resplendent stove with its nickel trimmings. Upstairs were irreproachably made beds, and from the bureau drawers she took a few little treasures, hand-woven cloth and kerchiefs, things from home, to show to me. Outside the whole air was full of the rust-colored smoke from the great steel works opposite, where her husband worked, and nearby stood a new and very ornate Ruthenian church.

In spite of sunny rooms and American plenty, she regretted being here. Indeed, I get the impression that the women are more apt to be homesick than the men, and that they often make their husbands return against their wishes. As a matter of fact I think the women lose more and gain less by the change than the men. They do not like the iron stoves which do not bake such sweet bread as their old ovens. They miss, I think, the variety of work, outdoor and indoor alternately, field work in sociable companionship with husband or lover and neighbors, the garden with its row of tall sunflowers, the care of the chickens and ducks and geese, the pig and the calf, and most of all the familiar sociable village life where everyone knows everyone else, and there are no uncomfortable superior Yankees to abash one; and where the children do not grow up to be alien and contemptuous.

They miss too the old customs which can only be imperfectly kept up in the new country. At home, there are pretty traditional observances at Easter and midsummer and harvest home, at Christ-

mas and Easter. But here the old world festivity of the wedding with its prolonged dancing and drinking and all its quaint symbolic incidents is too apt to become, in American eyes at least, a drunken row, and to end in the lock up—in fines and disgrace. The police or other petty officials, they claim, often purposely precipitate trouble in order to pocket the fees.

Like all Slavs, both Poles and Ruthenians love dancing, and perhaps one of the best things that could be done for them in this country would be to help them to decent and attractive gathering places where they could enjoy themselves

without recourse to more or less dubious dance halls.

At home they dance a great deal out of doors and I shall never forget one Sunday afternoon in Galicia when driving around a bend in the road we came upon a group of young boys and girls dancing to the music of a fiddle. They had left the cattle that they were tending to enjoy themselves as the older lads and lassies were doubtless doing in the village. One boy brought us a cap full of milky filberts and as we drove off into the gathering dusk we felt that we too had been in Arcadia.

NOTE.—Readers may like to know of some stories and other works bearing on this subject, some of them mentioned in the text.

Dowie, Menie Muriel.

A Girl in the Carpathian Mountains.

A very unusual and entertaining book (also published under the author's married name, Mrs. Norman).

Franzos, Emil:

For the Right.

A story of a Ruthenian peasant driven to desperation by his uncompromising belief in justice.

Gogol:

Taras Bulba.

A brilliant and masterly sketch of the Cossack life of the Little Russians of old.

Evening on the Farm Near the Dikanka.

Political tales full of superstition and passion.

Dorothea Gerard (Pseud.):

The Supreme Crime.

An Impossible Idyll.

Very readable novels. The scene laid in Galicia. The former is much the better.

Sienkiewicz:

With Fire and Sword.

The Deluge.

Pan Michael.

The Knights of the Cross.

On the Field of Glory.

These superb historical romances are too well known to need mention.

After Breed.

The author, perhaps influenced by the opinions prevailing in conservative and agrarian Polish circles represents some Polish immigrants who perish miserably in America.

Morfill:

History of Poland (The Story of The Nations series).

Good, but not written with special reference to Galicia.

Pennell:

The Jew at Home (Illustrated).

A one-sided and very unfavorable account of the Polish and Russian Jew and of Jewish towns in Galicia.

Shipman, A. J.:

Our Russian Catholics; the Greek Ruthenian Church in America.

Four articles beginning with September, 1904, full of information, in the Jesuit organ *The Messenger*, published 27 West 16th St., N. Y.

Chicago Settlements in Ward Politics

Graham Romeyn Taylor

For a decade Chicago has been known as a stronghold among American cities for independent and non-partisan voting. The aldermanic election of April 3 added one more to the long line of noteworthy victories Chicago has achieved in this respect. The Chicago electorate has a summary way of dealing with special interests which have insidiously tried to push forward their own advantage at expense to the city's welfare. For years men have attempted to saddle one sided traction bargains upon the municipality whose very growth has been the foundation of their great fortunes and their stock in trade. Yet they have been repulsed at every turn during the last ten

years by an aroused public. Not even the insidious bribe of immediately improved service, when the city has desperately needed that very thing, has wheedled the voters from standing stanchly and repeatedly for no compromise short of their full rights. In fact the traction issue may be said to have given birth to the independent vote in Chicago.

This year, an additional special interest fight suddenly obtruded itself into the situation. The saloon element solidified to an alarming degree in opposition to a measure which raised saloon licenses from \$500 to \$1,000. The traction interests were credited with encouraging

this conflict so that in its dust they might disorganize the anti-franchise sentiment. Be that as it may, the rout of the saloon interest was overwhelming.

The spirit of Chicago's reform movements has been democratic—close to the people. Her political regeneration has not been wrought by spasms of electing a "business man mayor." The city council was the first point of attack, and the battles have been waged in aldermanic campaigns throughout the thirty-five wards. With the leadership of the Municipal Voters' League, this plan of warfare has resulted in a steady advance through a period of ten years, in no one of which was there a failure to show a substantial gain over the preceding year, although in a few particular wards occasional reverses have been met. The city-wide victory in the matter of the saloon license is characteristic of this way of doing things, of trusting the people and of putting squarely upon the mass of the voters the responsibility for reform. For the high license was carried through by the legislative body nearest to the people, the city council being responsible to the people of Chicago and to them only. The high license was superimposed upon New York city and Philadelphia by their respective state legislatures. The Chicago city council had the courage but five weeks before election to defy the saloon element upon this proposition, and the results have shown that the saloon as a political factor was greatly overestimated.

Nowhere has the independent vote more effectively led throughout ten years than in the ward where Chicago Commons social settlement has waged a ten years' warfare to bring this vote to bear in practical politics. The seventeenth ward Community Club, which was organized and still centers at the settlement, scored on April 3 its ninth consecutive victory in aldermanic campaigns. Acting upon the balance of power principle in a ward where such a policy would be effective—the seventeenth is normally democratic by a few hundred—it sought of the two old parties the nomination of men for whom a citizen could vote without losing his self-respect. Although scorned at first, the club soon made its influence tell by

electing an independent candidate in a hard fight against a republican and a democrat, the situation so far as the latter two were concerned being summed up in "anything to lick the independent." Since then the club has swung its endorsement from one side to another, the side endorsed winning in every case.

The club has not been content merely with endorsing a candidate. It has vigorously campaigned in his support. In the struggle just ended, the club endorsed for re-election an alderman brought forward by itself four years ago. The conflict loomed up this spring with darker clouds than for years past. The ward contains 400 saloons—one to every twenty-five voters. But this alderman, though he jeopardized his commanding position as leader of the municipal ownership forces on the floor of the council, voted five weeks before election in support of the ordinance to raise the saloon license.

Such an act of real moral heroism rallied the seventeenth ward Community Club more enthusiastically than ever. Joining hands with the more recently organized Civic Club of the Northwestern University Settlement at the other end of the seventeenth ward, it lost no time in starting the campaign. Torch light processions through the streets, bearing transparencies setting forth the merits of "the man with the good record" awakened great enthusiasm and packed the meeting halls with larger crowds than the memorable mayoralty campaign of a year ago mustered in that section of the city. But the club did not stop with that. Alderman Dever had been loyal to the pledges he had made to the club in former years. And the club's loyalty to him was of a deeper order than that which merely shows itself on parade. Though the torch light processions came nearly every night during the last week of the campaign, and were followed by meetings, the hour was never too late for these "community men," as they are known through the ward, to work in their club rooms addressing postals or circulars, or attending to the other chores of a political campaign. And when election day arrived, the extraordinary spectacle was presented to the

"practical politician" of an organization of young men, a machine if you will, manning every one of the thirty-seven precincts in the ward all day long, with one and in some cases two men, who served without thought of the two, three or ten dollars that your ward "heeler" looks upon as necessary before he gives his "enthusiastic support."

As evidence that the community men themselves are capable of political work distinctly "practical" it is only necessary to state that Alderman Dever was triumphantly re-elected by a majority of 1,845 votes, receiving nearly twice as many as his opponent.

A noteworthy thing about the election in the seventeenth ward is the fact that the Italian vote refused to be delivered in the customary way, but went upon record for independence, as the Scandinavians have before them during the past successes of the Community Club. Eighty per cent. of the voters in the precinct in which Chicago Commons is located are Italians. It has usually been turned over by a large majority—eighty-seven votes last year—to one party. This year, although the same herders worked precisely as before, the sheep became suddenly independent when within the voting booths, and the precinct went for Mr. Dever by eighteen votes. As a matter of fact, the only bad defeat the Community Club has ever suffered was when it tried to elect an independent candidate for the legislature, the legislative district comprising, in addition to the seventeenth, a couple of "silk stocking" wards.

On Thursday evening, April 19, the Community Club tendered a congratulatory dinner to Alderman Dever at Chicago Commons. It is doubtful if ever in the history of the seventeenth ward so representative a gathering sat down together at a dinner table. The club, fifty

of whose members were present, had as its guests of the evening Mayor Dunne, Mr. Dever's companion alderman from the seventeenth ward, the alderman from an adjacent ward, the president of the principal bank in the neighborhood, and an Italian real estate dealer, all of whom, regardless of their party affiliations delighted to pay their respects to the guest of honor. The club extended its hospitality to a number of other men outside its membership, and among those present were prominent officers in both the republican and democratic ward organizations, the socialist prohibition candidates for alderman in the recent campaign, two or three representative Italian saloon-keepers, who supported Mr. Dever in his high license vote, a few members of the Northwestern University Settlement Civic Club, a group of leading Italians, and some from each of the various other nationalities that make up the ward—Germans, Scandinavians, and Poles. The addresses laid emphasis on the non-partisanship and independence of the ward, and even the old party politicians present declared that the day was past when it was only necessary to stick the party label on a candidate to secure the full party vote. Never was there a time when men felt freer to disregard party ties in order to cast their vote for men of proved ability and worth. Political independence was not the only topic dwelt upon. Fine expressions to friendship and trust between the various nationalities came from the lips of nearly every speaker, and the central thought of all was directed to the ways in which the united citizenship of the ward might best serve the needs of all its people. For one evening at least the things that divide were put aside, and every one met on the common ground of community welfare.

The Settlement Movement

III.

Education by Permeation

Samuel A. Barnett

[Canon Barnett, first and only warden of Toynbee Hall, East London, has led for more than thirty years in the work of initiating, setting the type and maintaining the standard of settlement service. This is the third in the series of notable articles on neighborhood work. On March 3, Prof. Graham Taylor discussed "Whither the Settlement Movement Tends," and on April 7, Mrs. Florence Kelley, "The Settlements; Their Lost Opportunity."]

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Men and women when they take account of their making, discover how much has been due to influences of which they were at the time unconscious. They have picked up more than they have been given. The "idle words" of parents, teachers and neighbors have again and again proved more powerful than their meditated precepts. Careless acts, manners, the pictures in a room, story books, a chance paragraph in a newspaper—a thousand trifles have directed the drift of their minds and their hearts. Few people can trace the source of their opinions; they have been educated largely by permeation.

The strange thing is that men and women so educated forget this fact when they set themselves to educate others. Their trust is almost wholly in direct methods. They are very keen that children should be told what to think and what to do. They add subject to subject in the school curriculum and by means of special lessons and text books strive to teach the children temperance, thrift, taste, morality and unselfishness. They start missions to carry the truth which has first been carefully packed in some dogma. They tell people in clearly cut phrases what is right and what is wrong. They put, as it were, their trust in medicine—some marvellous pill—forget that patients are more affected by the

air they unconsciously breathe and the food they carelessly eat.

The children who receive these direct lessons of the people, who are called to accept some doctrine, are all the time under the control of unpremeditated influences. They are moulded by the examples as well as by the precepts of their teachers, they are always adapting themselves to their environment. A teacher's tricks of intonation, his manners, will be caught when his lesson is missed. A man's behaviour in a dainty drawing room will be different from his behaviour in a bare club room. The neighborhood of the hills and the presence of a far view, have, as Ruskin has taught, lifted a whole population to higher conceptions of art. When the ideal of luxury is dominant, the habits of all classes in a community are subtly affected. Rich and poor alike come to think more of "having" than of "being." Pleasure is sought not in the exercise of the powers of thinking or feeling, but in excitement from external sources. Public opinion comes to approve the destruction of beauty in the use of child labor because large profits are held to be the chief object of existence. The habits, that is to say, of luxurious people—the careless lives of the men and women who fare sumptuously every day and think their extravagant expenditure to be good for

trade—are largely responsible for the degraded lives of their neighbors. It is eternally true that five righteous men may save a city. It is as true that thoughtless, luxurious lives may ruin a city—education is by permeation.

Education by direction has its value—God forbid there should be less energy in teaching or fewer missionaries. But this method has its danger in the curious disposition of human nature which makes it resent direction. A child's first thought is not to do what he is told to do. A man hates another man's assertion of mastership and the human mind strengthens itself by criticism. The greatest teacher therefore taught by parables and direct teachers to-day must be wary as to the means they use. "Be ye not called masters" is a text that teachers and missionaries may well hang over their beds. Direct teaching is of supreme value, but would to God there was greater thought for education by permeation.

Missions and settlements stand for the two ways. Missions have their recognized platform. They are established to draw people to a definite course of living, to sobriety, to temperance, or to some form of godliness. Their members are set apart for that purpose, and their profession is to do good. Their work has results which can be measured by numbers, by the classes which have been opened, or by the converts which have been made, or by the decreasing death rate of the community. The fact that some of the members are residents gives greater strength to the mission, but does not alter its character. Each resident is known as a person concerned for the end and devoted to the purpose for which the mission exists. The education which missions offer is direct education.

Settlements on the other hand simply open a way by which the members of one class in society may live in the midst of another class. They have no platform, no program, and their members do not come to do their neighbors good. They represent the education which is by permeation.

The members reside in the settlement as much to learn as to teach. They may,

for example, have lived under the influence of a university or of cultured surroundings, and they now submit themselves to the influences of an industrial neighborhood. They live their own lives and keep their own possessions. They do their own work and earn their own living, they have their own recreations, and being a community of people with kindred tastes, they are stimulated by one another's talk to retain their native standard of refinement. They remain themselves and keep the possessions which are the gifts of the age in which they live, but they daily walk through mean streets, they daily meet the crowds of workers—they feel the depression of the smoke-laden air, and they see what is the work and what are the pleasures of the people. They listen to the sermons of the children placed in their midst. They gradually, as all good citizens are bound to do, come to take part in local affairs. They go to local meetings, they join clubs and take part in movements. They form acquaintances and friendships. They meet for casual talks and they hear of the wrongs, of the sorrows, of the anger, and of the ignorance which are in the minds of workmen. Under all these and many more such influences they become changed. Continual, unnoticed droppings fall into their subconscious selves, and in distant days these selves will reflect their opinions. It is not that this or that workman leader has brought them to take his view, but they have somehow learned to look at life from another standpoint. It is not perhaps that they confess to any change of opinion, but sympathy makes them express the old opinion in a different spirit. A short residence in a foreign country is often powerful in changing a man's opinion about foreigners, and so it is when a university man makes his home among workmen. Many men who have come to live in Toynbee Hall have discovered their calling, and no man has ever resided for a year who has not picked up thoughts and knowledge to affect his whole life. I think of one who was led by his experience to put his mind to consider systems of education, till he is now an acknowledged authority

on the subject. I think of another who, face to face with the men and women who make the problem of the unemployed, has devoted the powers of his life to its solution. I think of the whole body of men who have passed through the Whitechapel on their way into the world, and I recognize how they have carried with them into their present position the thoughts and sympathies which came to them when they made some of their friends among the poor. They know things they never learned, and their opinions are drawn from sympathies they never tracked to that source.

The members of a settlement are surely changed, and as surely they make a change in their neighbors. They live as it were on a hill, they are lights set on a candlestick. They are noticeable by the house they occupy, and by the habits they follow. Their doings and saying are therefore marked and reported. Their ways are often copied. A young man who as a boy had been a frequent visitor in a resident's room was found to have furnished his room in the same fashion and hung it with like pictures. A party of workmen who had signalized some event in the neighborhood by dining with the residents determined at their own future banquets to adopt the fashion of table napkins and flowers. The residents at meetings or as members of local boards or in discussions on policy are found to be better able to express their thoughts, to be more capable of seeing possible difficulties—to take stricter views of duty and more generous views of opponents. They by their talk and conduct commend the value of study, and give a blow to the paralyzing heresy, which says, "Does Job serve God for naught?" The marks of the presence of a settlement are to be found in softer manners, in increased good will, in greater civic sense and in more regard for knowledge. But these marks are not to be recognized as its marks and the

settlement will receive neither praise nor recognition. Its method is not direct, but by permeation. Individual members may indeed become prominent, but if they do so it will be just as any neighbor may become prominent. Residents in Toynbee Hall have been elected to place as local authorities, some as members of one party, some of the opposite. One or two have become responsible for reforms in policy or administration—others are known as lecturers or writers. Those men are the natural output, but not a necessary output of a settlement and that work is not to be credited to its glory. The best residents, whether they be prominent or obscure, are those who live in such contact with their neighbors as to have formed among them a number of equal friendships. A settlement ought not to raise itself—as a mission may justly do. It ought to raise the whole neighborhood until it is itself unnoticed.

Settlements indeed suggest a conception of society unlike that which often governs the minds of good people. The popular conception is one in which the rich help the poor, and the wise the ignorant. It is a society of benefactors and beneficiaries where, moved by good will, the strong visit the weak and comfort the sorrowing. The conception has its beauty, but it belongs to mediæval times. There is another conception which is gradually gaining shape. It is of a society where co-operation takes the place of benevolence and justice the place of charity. It is Walt Whitman's "city of friends," where men and women shall be strong in their own individuality, some richer, some poorer, but none crushed, and where all work together and are taxed together for the common wealth.

The conception is as yet indistinct, but it is suggested by the settlement, whose object is to lose itself in a sweeter, and a happier and a more human society.

Judge-Made Ignorance in Pennsylvania

Florence Kelley

The right to ignorance has been judicially vindicated. So, also, has the right to work underground in early childhood. It is in Pennsylvania that these things have been done, first by Judge Wheaton of Wilkesbarre in his decision of October 30, 1905, and more recently by the Superior Court in the decision written by Judge Rice, sustaining Judge Wheaton. In the decision, the court holds to be unconstitutional and, therefore, void, the vital sections of that statute of 1905 which prohibited the employment underground, of boys under the age of sixteen years, and the employment about the mine mouth, above ground, of boys under the age of fourteen years. The court says:

For the reasons stated we are of opinion that so much of the act as requires the furnishing of employment certificates, and as provides a method of obtaining the same and imposes duties as to their issuance, and fines and penalties for employing those who shall not have procured them, is violative of the 14th amendment and is unconstitutional and void.

The certificates thus abolished are the simplest device yet invented for making workable in this country the age limit which it is the aim of the statute to establish. Nothing is easier than to enact the provision that children shall not work before they reach a specified birthday; and few tasks are more difficult than the enforcement of this simple provision.

The practical result of the action of the court is that those sections of the act which it sustains (the prohibition of employment underground before the 16th birthday and at the mine-mouth above ground before the 14th birthday) are dead letters. Any boy who says that he is fourteen years old, or sixteen years old, goes to work upon his unsupported statement.

Who knows the age of Johnny Jones? Naturally, his father and mother. But they have a money interest in misrepresenting his age, and it is precisely against the poverty or the greed of his parents that the state attempts to protect Johnny Jones when it says that he is not to work before the specified birth-

day. The age limit for children beginning to work was established in England sixty years ago, because there the parish records afford convincing legal evidence of Johnny Jones' age. Not so in this country. So defective are our vital statistics that native children, outside a few large cities, have serious difficulty in proving their age. For this reason many states have, during the past thirty years, provided that Johnny Jones' age shall be accepted as stated by his parent under oath. But perjury in such minor matters is cheerfully viewed by parents of Johnny Jones' station in life, and has remained to this day unpunished.

How then can the age limit be enforced upon children who are about to begin to work? Clearly Johnny Jones' father's word and oath must be corroborated. But how? The available means of corroboration are civil birth records, religious records (baptism, chistinging, confirmation, circumcision), passports, ship manifests, etc. Most useful of all are the public school records. The greater the variety of confirmatory evidence permitted by the statute, the easier, of course, for Johnny Jones to prove his age.

For this practical reason, derived from long experience of vain effort to enforce legislation for the protection of children in Pennsylvania, the statute of 1905 included in the list of acceptable evidence of age, the record of the school showing that Johnny Jones had attended school during the year preceding his application for a certificate, receiving instruction in reading, writing, geography and English grammar, and in arithmetic to and including fractions. This is the work of the first five years of the public schools. This provision, intended to facilitate the issuing of certificates to children not otherwise able to prove their age, became the undoing of the statute. Shocked at the thought of requiring boys to obtain this meager educational equipment before entering upon the life of toil underground, the Pennsylvania

judges summoned in defence of ignorance and premature toil, not merely the constitution of the state but the constitution of the United States.

Once more the 14th amendment to the constitution of the United States, enacted to protect the Negro in the enjoyment of his civil rights, has been perverted and made to deprive white wage-earners of the right to childhood, leisure and education.

The Pennsylvania court expressly states that the initial prohibitions stand; that boys under sixteen years of age may not legally work underground, nor boys under fourteen years at the mine-mouth. But having swept away everything in the statute which gave them force and effect, the court has deprived these prohibitions of all value for the protection of the children.

The boys are back in the mines and the breakers, by thousands as they were before the statute was enacted. They work in 1906 as they worked in 1896 in the mines of Pennsylvania. Their numbers have grown as the industry has expanded.

These Pennsylvania judges will go down to history as the enemies of the children, like the twenty-one Georgia senators who, last June, condemned to another year of deadly toil in cotton mills, by day and by night, the little children under ten years of age, whose labor they refused to prohibit by statute. But the injury which the Georgia senators wrought can be ended by their successors next June. Far more difficult is it to repair the harm done by the Pennsylvania judges. For their decisions must be reversed before the boys in the mines and the breakers can be again freed from their grim tasks and returned to the schools whence this decision has banished them. The friends of the boys will doubtless appeal the case, carrying it, if necessary, to the Supreme Court at Washington. Meanwhile, under the decision, there is one obvious line of action possible to the legislature which will sit next year at Harrisburg. The courts having held that it is invidious to require children to prove a specified attendance at school who cannot otherwise

prove their age, while not requiring similar attendance at school of *all* the children in the state (and that such invidious requirement is unconstitutional), a desirable alternative seems to be the enactment of a statute requiring that *all* children shall complete the work of certain classes in the schools.

Some restriction upon the labor of boys in mines there must be in the interest of the children and of the republic. If the age limit is not a workable restriction in Pennsylvania, some other form of restriction must be found without loss of time. Experience in New York has shown that the children are most effectively protected by a combination of requirements covering age, stature, health, intelligence (as shown by ability to read and write English) and school attendance for a time indicated by the grade reached by the candidate at the time of applying for permission to work. If the difficulty in Pennsylvania lies in the partial and discriminating nature of the recent statute, by all means, let *all* the candidates for employment be uniformly required to reach a given stature and to accomplish a specified amount of school work.

The most conspicuous need of the children of Pennsylvania as revealed by the census of 1900 is some sweeping provision for their education such as shall withdraw them from work and retain them in school.¹

When ranked according to the percent of her children ten to fourteen years of age, who were able to read and write, Pennsylvania stood in 1900, twentieth among all the states and territories, having fallen in ten years from the sixteenth place which she occupied in 1890. If, in 1910, Pennsylvania shall have continued her descent in the scale of the states and territories, the judicial decisions which in 1906 have sent thousands of boys from the schools to the mines, will not have been without influence upon the disgraceful result.

¹When graded according to the ability of her children to read and write, Pennsylvania does not, during this decade rank with the Northern states, but stands between Maryland and Florida as follows:

<i>Illiterate Children Ten to Fourteen Years of Age.</i>	
37 Maryland.....	5,859
38 Pennsylvania	6,326
39 Florida.....	8,389

Household Budgets of the Poor

An Inquiry into the Dietary Standards and Habits of a Group of Tenement House Families in New York City

Caroline Goodyear

Agent Riverside District, New York Charity Organization Society

Of the primary divisions of the family budget—rent, clothing and food—the item of food will be soonest affected by any necessity that may arise for reducing expenses. Economical management in this department usually yields more immediate and tangible returns than a diminution in the customary expenditure for clothing. And it can be effected with a lesser degree of acquiescence in the permanency of the change than a reduction in rent. In the large majority of cases a simplification of diet and more care in the daily marketing, etc., may be in every way beneficial, but after a certain minimum has been reached it is evident that the process of saving can go no further in this direction without involving injury to health and therefore ceasing to be economy. It follows that when a family becomes necessarily dependent upon continuous charitable assistance, this minimum dietary standard must in some way be safe-guarded before the treatment of the case can properly be considered adequate. It seems evident that in many cases after long privation, the mother, from patient acceptance of the inevitable, finally loses in part her realization of normal requirements in the matter of nourishment and endures with entire cheerfulness a reduction in the quantity and variety of food for herself and family which carries it far below that necessary for the maintenance of physical vigor. It is not unusual to hear her protest, while complaining of the difficulty of meeting the rent or of the rapidity with which the shoes wear out, that “she never worries about the bit they eat,” and in some hard pressed cases she seems almost to congratulate herself upon the fact that one or more members of the family have “no appetite.” Children who are habitually underfed appear perfectly satisfied with an insufficient quantity and their enfeebled organs lose the power of digesting food of ordinary

quality. Milk must be diluted for them, soup made thin, etc.

There is a danger that charitable visitors charged with the responsibility of providing adequate relief may occasionally be too easily led to accept the mother's standard, though certainly the question of the administration of relief beyond that for which she recognizes the necessity is a delicate one and full of difficulties. A more perfect conception of a normal standard in diet, on the part of the poor themselves and of those who advise and aid them, would seem to be an important step towards the attainment of better conditions.

Some three months have been spent by the writer during the past year in an inquiry the purpose of which was to gain a closer familiarity with actual conditions in detail as they obtain among dependent families—or such as are with difficulty maintaining their independence—in regard to the purchase and management of food. It is probable that many of the observations made are valid only in reference to the class studied as above defined, and that the charges of careless waste, insistence upon high-priced cuts, and the extravagant use of canned vegetables, ready-cooked meats, etc., which are so often made against the poor, may be true in greater degree of those whose circumstances are slightly easier. The scope of the study has inevitably been narrowed by limitations of time, opportunity, etc., and many important phases of the subject, such as the quality and purity of the foods consumed, the use of the “quick lunch” and the “free lunch,” and the whole question of alcoholic beverages, have been left aside. The foreigners interviewed appeared more or less embarrassed by the inquiry or regarded it with a measure of suspicion, and it was found impossible to obtain from them the spontaneous, almost confidential revelation of intimate detail which was desired. With

American, German and Irish families very little difficulty was experienced. The necessary introduction was obtained in the greater number of cases from agents of the Charity Organization Society and by this means a certain familiarity with the general conditions in the family was acquired previous to the interview, thus providing the setting for the special statement and obviating the necessity for many questions of a delicate nature. The several statements were each obtained in a single interview and the facts recorded must, of course, be regarded as suggestive rather than conclusive.

Some trouble was taken to vary the manner of approaching the subject in order to encourage individuality in the several statements. If a guest were present, the interview was usually postponed and it sometimes happened that there was a condition of such acute distress as made the visit untimely; but as a rule the women insisted that they were "glad to sit down and talk a few minutes," and with very few exceptions they treated the inquiry sympathetically, and told freely of their pet economies and ways of planning to meet their own particular difficulties. One woman, in spite of rather appalling home conditions, gave the visitor a most cordial welcome—thought such inquiries did a great deal of good—was herself much interested in reading household hints in the daily papers. (Her drunken husband had wrecked the stove and for a week her family of eight children, had lived mainly upon bread and milk and restaurant soup. Water for tea she boiled upon a neighbor's fire but she was careful to avoid asking unnecessary favors.) The introductory explanation however, was not invariably so well accepted and a question about Friday's dinner led another woman into a rather anxious statement of her careful observance of that and all the other fast days of the church.

Economies: The point of view, as has
Wise and the already been intimated, is
Reverse. that of the mother of the household; and to the visitor who desires to cultivate her acquaintance the subject is commended as one likely to throw a strong illumination upon her

character and capability. The process of saving pennies becomes a science with some women, and the vigilance required to effect any appreciable results is something to excite sympathy and wonder, if not in all cases, unqualified admiration. The varying tastes of different members of the family must be taken into consideration, but whereas the majority fear to set untried dishes on the table lest they be disapproved and the materials wasted, a few recognize the danger of a similar waste from too great monotony in the bill of fare. Mrs. M——, an excellent housekeeper, makes one can of tomatoes last a week for the flavoring of soups and stews, thus showing her intelligent appreciation of its importance as a relish while recognizing its comparatively slight value as nourishment. Further instances of thrift or economy, not always commendable, are the following:

Nursing the baby too long to save the cost of his food or weaning him too soon in order that his mother may leave the home to work.

Use of sweetened condensed milk in tea and coffee, and on cereals, bread, etc., to save sugar or butter.

Use of sweet buns instead of rolls for breakfast, to save butter.

Use on bread of jam or jelly (often bought in bulk at three to five cents a pound), instead of butter. It is less expensive and keeps better, tending to lessen the necessity for ice.

Purchase of meat, milk, butter and other perishable commodities just before the meal to avoid the necessity for ice.

Purchase of cracked eggs at greatly reduced price.

Re-serving of soup meat in hash, croquettes, etc.

Use of pudding or a cereal as the main dish for dinner.

Dealing out of sugar, butter, jam, etc., by the mother instead of allowing the children to help themselves.

This is impracticable when the mother works by the day.

The mother often provides less hearty food for herself and the younger children than for those members of the family who are more actively employed.

Highly economic, but impossible in the

many cases where the income is irregular, is the practice of allowing a definite amount, according to means, for each of the necessary items—as, fifteen cents for meat, six cents for vegetables, etc.

The children, from a very early age, play an active part in the economic scheme. From spending so much time on the street, they are quick to notice bargains, "marked down sales," etc., and the mother depends upon them to report such opportunities even when they are not entrusted with the entire marketing. In the early morning they wait at the bakeries for yesterday's bread—wheat, rye or graham, as the chance may be, in large families sometimes visiting several stores in order to get enough. At the closing hour on Friday they are on hand for the bargains to be had in fish. (In one instance fifteen cents bought "two good-sized flounders, two cod-steaks and a butter fish, all very nice and fresh"—and no objection whatever raised to the haphazard variety.) Dealers often favor the little ones out of sheer good nature, and the "baker lady" usually makes a practice of keeping a pan of broken cookies behind the counter as an inducement to them to come again. In summer the ice carts have a troop of little followers, and for families living in the neighborhood of docks and wholesale markets, the gleanings of the children are often a factor of recognized importance, though the condition of the fruit and vegetables they gather up—bruised, wilted and overripe—may make them a menace to health.

Very early, too, the children begin to share the anxieties of the mother. A ten-year-old boy in the Bronx insists on buying brown bread for the family because he has heard that it is more nourishing than white, and another in the lower part of the city warns his mother that butter (at twenty-five cents a pound) is too expensive for her purse.

For each record three different cards specially ruled and printed were found convenient, the first indicating the membership and circumstances of the family, the second showing the price usually paid

for the ordinary articles of diet and the quantities used per week, and the third showing the actual variety of food served to the family for breakfast, dinner and supper for from four to seven days previous to the interview, and allowing space for general remarks.

A Typical Family Budget.

The following case is selected for reproduction in full, not because of any sensational features but as illustrating fairly the ground which the investigation sought to cover, though no one statement covers it completely:

Card 1.

Name:—H. Address:— No. of rooms:—2.
Rent:—\$9.00.
Man 49 years old, temporarily employed as watchman at \$10.00 per week. Suffering with tubercular elbow. Irish. Roman Catholic, -18 yrs. in U. S., 2 yrs. in New York city.
Woman 37 years old, employed at office cleaning at \$3-\$4 per week. Has poor teeth and suffers from malaria. Irish. Roman Catholic.
Children:—
13 yrs. in U. S., 2 yrs. in New York city.
Boy 11 yrs. Has malaria.
" 9 " " "
Girl 4 " " "
" 2 " " "

One lodger.

Card 2.

	Price.	Quantity per wk.	Variety.
Coffee,		None	
Tea,	40 cts. lb.	½ lb.	
Cocoa,			
Cereals,			Farina, oatmeal.
Bread,	2½ c. loaf	42 loaves	
Butter,	25 cts. lb.	1½ lbs.	substitutes— jelly at 5c. per lb.
Milk,	10 cts. can.	1 can	"Magnolia"— complains of quality of fresh milk at 4c. per qt.
Sugar,	3½ lbs.—22c.		
Eggs,			
Potatoes,	6c. pail.		
Dried legumes			Beans
Other vegetables			Cabbage, scallions, etc.
Canned vegetables	6c. can.		Tomatoes.
Macaroni,	7c. lb.		
Cheese,			"Store"
Beer,			
Ice,		None unless free.	

Meat mentioned.	Cut.	Price per lb.	Quantity usually purchased.
Corned beef	flank	6c. lb.	5—6 lbs.
Steak,		10c. "	1½ "
"	skirt	8c. "	1½ "
Tripe,			
Kidneys,			
Pork,	chops	12c. "	1 "

Fish:—Smoked herring and canned salmon, the only varieties mentioned.

Fruit:—

Dried:—

Puddings, etc.:—Rice, etc.

Catsups, etc.:—

Grocer:—

Market:—Push carts, street vendors, etc.

Woman's estimate of cost per week:—\$8.00 (when she has it).

Card 3.

- 6/15. Thurs.—Evening: Stew.
 6/16. Fri.—Morning: Bread, butter, tea. Midday: Smoked herring (4 for 10c.), boiled potatoes, bread and tea. Evening: Soup left over.
 6/17. Sat.—Morning: 1 lb. pork chops, fried potatoes, bread, butter, tea. Midday: Bread and butter only. Evening: Macaroni and tomatoes.
 6/18. Sun.—Morning: Pork chops, bread, butter and tea. Midday: 5¼ lbs. corned beef (flank, 6c.), 4 small cabbages, 10c., potatoes. Evening: Cold meat.
 6/19. Mon.—Morning: Cold meat (because it wouldn't keep), bread and jelly (5c. lb.), tea. Midday: Bread and butter. Evening: 1½ lbs. flank steak at 10c., potatoes, scallions fried in butter.
 6/20. Tues.—Morning: Crackers and tea. Midday: Store cheese, 10c. Evening: Beans cooked with tomatoes.
 6/21. Wed.—Morning: Bread and tea. Midday: 1¼ lbs. skirt steak, no potatoes. Evening: Bread and tea (man away).

Woman goes out (office cleaning) from 7.30 to 10 or 11 A. M. daily; eats nothing until her return. Lodger does her marketing, is an old woman and her preferences have to be considered; woman thinks could manage better if at home herself. Likes variety and is fond of cooking; has a sister at service who has taught her many things; cannot bake because stove is out of repair. Children do not like oatmeal for breakfast; gives farina sometimes; uses oatflakes to thicken kidney stew. Other favorite dishes are: Italian vegetable pie (layers of potato, onion, tomatoes, etc., with chopped meat); Lyonnaise eggs (baked in drawn butter flavored with onion); stewed tripe. Makes a practice of drying celery, onions, etc., for her own use.

Boy often obtains gratis from wholesale grocers sample cans or packages of fish, vegetables, cereals, etc., that have been opened to show to customers. Once brought home nine open cans of salmon.

Some Generalizations as to Bills of Fare.

From one hundred records similar to the above the following summary has been made, the percentages, etc., being based upon the number from whom the particular statement was obtained.

The families include 100 men, forty-nine women, 427 children. Average income estimated at less than nine dollars per week; average rent ten dollars and fifty cents to eleven dollars.

- Average quantity of tea per week for each family, 3/7 lb.
 Average quantity of coffee per week for each family, 2/3 lb.
 Average quantity of bread per day for each family, 3—3¼ loaves.
 Average quantity of butter per week for each family, 1½ lbs.
 Average quantity of sugar per week for each family, 3½ lbs.

About one-third of the families make use of canned condensed milk and about one-seventh use it exclusively. Very few indeed use bottled milk except when it is given free;—the usual price for "loose" milk is four cents a quart. Only one family mentioned the use of cream—one-half pint daily for the baby. Home-made bread is usually regarded even by

those who make it as little less expensive than baker's, but it is always considered more substantial and wholesome. Flour is bought by the twenty-four pound bag, at eighty-five cents to ninety-five cents.

The usual quantity of meat¹ on weekdays is about one and one-half pounds. Friday's dinner is often of eggs, macaroni and tomatoes, or sometimes bread and cheese only. Not much enthusiasm is shown for fresh fish, but salt cod and canned salmon are often used. Ready cooked foods from the delicatessen store are generally recognized as extravagant, but are resorted to more or less to save trouble; for lunches, and occasionally when the mother returns home too late, too tired to cook.

As to fresh vegetables, potatoes are a matter of course in most households, string beans, spinach and cabbage are very popular; onions are used mainly for flavoring. It is not uncommon to spend from two cents to five cents for lettuce, radishes, cucumbers, tomatoes, or soup-greens. Canned tomatoes are used almost universally, but very few other canned vegetables, except occasionally corn and peas. They are usually regarded as too expensive and "one can doesn't go around";—also considerable prejudice is expressed against the cheaper grades.

Ice is highly appreciated, but a large proportion buy it only on Saturday nights (five cents' worth). Dish-pans, washtubs, etc., are used to hold it when there is no refrigerator.

One meal a day of bread and tea or coffee only is the rule in forty-two families and twenty-one of these very often have two such meals a day, and in fifteen other families, two such meals a day is the rule.

The Families Themselves.

Only thirty-seven of the men are able-bodied, though in a few other cases there are children old enough to contribute to

¹ The usual practice in regard to meat is as follows: For Sunday, a joint weighing from three to seven pounds (pot-roast, California ham, corned beef, shoulder or leg of lamb), which usually lasts for Monday's dinner and often for Tuesday; on Wednesday, Thursday and Saturday, soup, stew, pork and beans, liver and bacon, or steak (usually chuck, skirt or flank steak at ten to twelve cents per pound; sometimes round at sixteen cents.)

the income. Of the sixty-three women bearing the double burden of bread-winner and home-keeper, thirty-four are more or less broken down in health, and fifteen others are under such a nervous strain as threatens soon to become unendurable unless relieved. Poor health or lack of vigor apparently traceable in large measure to insufficient or improper nourishment is noted in thirty-seven families. In twenty-one cases, more than two members are delicate and in twelve cases, more than three. Of these, twenty-seven had income insufficient to supply the necessities, though in twelve cases particularly good management went far to remedy the difficulty.

Only twenty-four of the women interviewed seemed in very low spirits and not more than five showed any inclination to whine.

The latter fact would seem to lay additional emphasis upon the responsibility of the charitable visitor for maintaining at least in her own mind an ideal standard towards which both the family and their benefactors shall perseveringly strive—a standard which shall allow a sufficiency for the essentials of health and decency, even though it be higher than that with which the family has gradually been constrained to content itself. Again, it has been noticeable that when a family has once been helped, its sense of modesty will often prevent it from applying again to the same source of relief, and unless the relief be adequate, and continued as long as may be necessary to meet the need, the very unwillingness of the applicant to be too burdensome, may be the motive which in the beginning leads to going hither and thither for relief, and in the end develops chronic pauperism.

**The Woman
as Wage-
Earner.**

The circumstance that in so large a proportion of the above families there is no male support, has drawn special attention to the difficulties of those mothers who must also be bread-winners. The type of family is too familiar to need description, but it is safe to say that the extent of its hardships is not yet fully appreciated, and there is still need of forceful

reiteration both of the conditions and of their inevitable results. As will have been noted, poor health was the rule rather than the exception among the women who were attempting to fill this double role, and although it is true that many of them were already suffering from organic disorders or were in enfeebled condition from privation or other cause before the added burden of wage-earning was laid upon them, this fact hardly relieves the gravity of the situation. The questions how much the mother should be expected to earn and what occupations are suitable, though not new ones, are still vital. It is no doubt true that it is of positive benefit to the woman occasionally to leave her home for a day, that she may see new faces and break the monotony of her usual routine, and it may in some cases be true that she is better fitted to earn the income than she is to manage the home and children, the task being often the simpler and less responsible of the two; but the necessity remains of filling the place that she leaves unfilled, and, if she is a suitable guardian for them, the task of adequately supplementing the income is the one which will present the fewer difficulties to the outside helper.

The occupation of office cleaning so eagerly desired by many women as offering a compromise and allowing them a portion of every day at home, and so acceptable to the plans of the charity worker for them, as affording a definite and regular salary, seems, in the cases studied, to be a rather desperate expedient, even worse in respect of the nerve-racking hours, than full time employment.

Mrs. R., for example, works from six to nine A. M. and from five to eight P. M. at eighteen dollars per month. To supplement the income, she takes in washing, working hard at this during the middle of the day and in the evening. Sunday brings no relief, as it is the only day when the laundry work can take full swing. The home life is sacrificed almost entirely. The table is never set for a meal and cooking is as far as possible avoided both because it takes time and because "grease

on the stove would spoil the flatirons." Two children are in an institution, and the eldest, a girl of thirteen, takes the entire care of the little three-year-old. The feverishness of Mrs. R's industry is partly temperamental, but it is evident that her nerves are strained to the point where she can find no pleasure in relaxation.

Another office cleaner, Mrs. L., was found busy at her own washing, thin and care-worn, working with nervous energy, and not inclined to welcome the interruption. As usual in such cases it seemed best to withdraw with a word of apology, but the mention of the district agent's name had had its effect, and though the interview lasted but a few moments the outlines of a striking picture were obtained. Winter and summer, in all weathers, Mrs. L. must be at her work from 4.30 to 8 A. M. and from 4.30 to 8 P. M., earning a salary of thirty dollars per month. The children must get their own breakfast and their own supper, for she comes home almost exhausted—often too tired to eat. The two elder sons, fifteen and seventeen years of age, respectively, earn together eight dollars per week. They pay cash for their lunch, as their mother cannot take time to prepare anything for them. Sunday's dinner is almost the only meal at which all can be together and she does her best to give them a good one. With an income of fifteen dollars per week, the family is for the time being self supporting, but the prop is a perilously slender one.

In strong contrast to the above is the case of Mrs. S., with whom an unusually favorable combination of circumstances makes the work fairly successful, though certain of the objections are still in force. Mrs. S. is of cheery disposition, and her statement is like a contented little love song, with the love of her one little child as an ever-recurring refrain. Her hours are about the same as those of Mrs. R., and she has, besides, the position of janitress, which reduces her rent to two dollars per month. Before going out in the morning she takes a cup of cocoa only and leaves bread and cocoa ready for

little Mary, depending upon a neighbor to awaken the child in time to get ready for school. On her return about 9.15, Mrs. S. has a luncheon of bread and butter, and at 12 o'clock gives Mary her dinner. Her own heartiest meal is at 3 o'clock, and they have supper together at 8, except when Mary eats with one of the neighbors, among whom she is a great pet, her mother finding opportunity to repay their kindness by helping with sewing, etc. On Saturdays an extra fire is needed in order to heat water for the house cleaning, and Mrs. S. plans to do as much of her cooking as possible at that time. She avoids doing much housework on Sundays, and likes to take Mary to the park then. With an income of about four dollars per week besides rent, she insists that they have abundant nourishment. She has nearly finished paying, on the instalment plan, for a sewing machine and a portrait of the little daughter.

The effects on the fatherless children who are above the age limit of the day nurseries of being thus left through a large part of the day without control or discipline are perhaps even more serious than those of the over-strain upon the mother, but, to speak only of the matter of food, many mothers complain of the impossibility of close economy when the midday refreshments (one cannot allude to them as a meal) have to be left to the judgment of the school children. The dimes left them are mis-spent or lost, or the grocer's account is unduly swelled; butter, sugar, jam, etc., are wasted, and no regularity or order is observed.

Higher Standards Needed.

The mother's presence, however, does not always remedy the difficulty, and a very serious factor in poor management is the attention paid by the mother to the whims of the children in the matter of diet—whims which originate from their injudicious treatment in this respect from babyhood up. A marked instance of this kind is the case of Mrs. K., who avoids the use of cereals, macaroni, dried peas or beans, or cheese because the children do not care for them. She feels that she cannot afford much meat, and they often

make their heartiest meal of bread and tea with one vegetable—for instance, fried potatoes, cabbage, string beans, or tomatoes,—or sometimes berries and milk only. The income of thirteen dollars to fifteen dollars per week is earned by the three elder daughters, the mother seldom leaving the house. She believes that she is an excellent manager, and tptally fails to trace the poor health of five of her six children to its evident cause. Her husband and eldest daughter have died of tuberculosis within two years.

Nevertheless, striking examples of thrifty management are so frequent as to lead to the belief that a small income if only it be regular affords valuable discipline in effective economy, while on the other hand in as many as fourteen families, carelessness in housewifery seems to be easily traceable to loss of interest due to erratic fluctuations. Extravagant

expenditure, in several of the few cases in which it has been differentiated from other closely related forms of mismanagement, seems to be owing to the fact that the family has not yet adjusted itself to its condition of poverty—either because the poverty is recent, or because it is regarded as only temporary.

The lines of progress most obviously suggested by the above study are:

1. A better definition and possibly a higher standard of adequacy in relief.

2. Further education.

(a) Of the little children, in proper dietary habits.

(b) Of the girls of grammar school age, in economical cookery and house keeping.

(c) Of the mothers, in marketing, in the comparative values of different foods, practicable variations of diet, etc.

(d) Of charitable visitors, whether volunteer or professional, in all of the above, and to some extent in dietetics and the chemistry of cooking and digestion.

Attacking Poverty from the Wrong End

(Joseph Lee in *Boston Transcript*)

A bill has been introduced this year in the Massachusetts legislature for providing old-age pensions, and the same policy is said to be receiving support from the new liberal government in England. A proposition resting upon a similar theory as to the best method of meeting the problem of poverty is the proposal that has been made in New York and elsewhere that school children whose parents do not feed them properly should receive free meals in school.

We believe that both of these measures are calculated to produce very different results from what their advocates desire, and that both of them are attacking the problem of poverty from the wrong end. A law providing that old people shall be supported by the state lessens by just so much the motive for saving, and what is more important, impairs the cogency of family loyalty and affection on the part of the children. If the state will look after the old folks, what necessity is there that the young should do so? Similarly, if the state advertises that any parent by ceasing to feed his children can make them fit objects for public support, why should he any longer struggle to feed them? Why should he have any reference to ability to feed them in marrying or in planning his family life? The two measures taken together would weaken the family relation at its two most binding points, the tie that binds the parent to the child and that which binds the child to the parent. It would lessen the two great motives that have created and upheld the self-supporting, self-respecting family, the fundamental institution on which our civilization is based.

The way to cure the evils that exist is not by giving ready-made results. To take from a person nature's stimulus for exertion, the necessity of self-support, is to take from him something which most men, even most capable men, find it difficult or impossible to get along without. Even Thackeray never took to writing until he was short of money, and the amount of writing he did continued closely proportionate to the shortness.

These pension bills and child-feeding bills are survivals of the old-fashioned charity, the charity that believes in tying on the flowers. The characteristic of the new charity is not to tie on the flowers, but to water the plant. It takes longer to get results, but the results when got are more worth while. Better than these pension bills and the like, which are merely wholesale pauperism under its ever-varying disguise, are the bills now before our legislature for promoting health and efficiency in the child and in the grown-up man, such bills, for instance, as House bill 748, for the medical inspection of school children; House bill 231, to prevent the physical poisoning of the public by patent medicine frauds, and House bill 314, to prevent the poisoning of the public mind by certain classes of advertisements. These represent the democratic way, the American way, of fighting poverty, the way which consists in giving powers, not in removing the stimulus which is the greatest single factor in the acquisition of power, the method which puts into the man's hand the means of making a good fight, but does not remove from him the necessity of fighting.

For that's the old Amerikin idee,

To make a man a man and let him be.

How Foreign Municipalities Feed Their School Children

John Spargo

Author of *The Bitter Cry of the Children*; *Forces that Make for Socialism*, etc.

[This is one of a series of articles taking up some of the social problems of the public schools. March 24 was published Miss Hood's description of the house-wifery schools in London; April 7, Dr. Cronin's discussion of the medical supervision of school children, and the articles by Miss Morten and Miss Rogers on the school nurse in England and America. Other contributions are to follow. Mr. Spargo's article is in substance a section of his recent book, *The Bitter Cry of the Children*, with special reference to the current political-educational situation in England.]

One of the vital issues in English politics at the present time is the problem of the underfeeding of children and its relation to the many and complex problems of health, education and morality—long the subject of careful study and municipal experiment in several European countries.

When, in the early eighties, H. M. Hyndman and his few Social-Democratic colleagues advocated the enactment of legislation compelling the municipal authorities to undertake the feeding of the many thousands of children in the public schools, the proposal was derided as "visionary." To-day, however, it has the earnest support of some of the ablest and most influential members of the House of Commons. Men like Sir John Gorst, ex-cabinet minister, on the Conservative side, and Herbert Gladstone, on the Liberal side, are united in the advocacy of the socialistic proposal.

Inquiries made by a royal commission, a special inter-departmental committee, and several local investigating committees in cities like London, Birmingham, Glasgow, Dundee and Aberdeen, have revealed a most alarming state of affairs. In London, it has been estimated by the leading authority, Dr. Eichholz, there are over 100,000 children of school age who are chronically underfed. The reports from the other cities named are equally serious. Public sentiment has been aroused to such an extent that there seems to be little room for doubting that in the very near future, Parliament will enact some measure providing for the feeding of children in the public schools. The new Liberal government has already given a pledge in the House of Commons of legislation on the

subject this session. In the meantime, many thousands of children are being fed by charitable organizations, working in conjunction with the school authorities. In most cases the meals are sold to the children at one cent per meal, with the understanding that if they are too poor to pay, the meals will be given free of charge. It is astonishing to find that many thousands of the children are found, after careful investigation, to be too poor to raise even one cent.

The experiment which has for some time been tried in Birmingham has attracted widespread attention in sociological circles, not only in England, but throughout Europe. This charity makes no effort whatever to deal with any but the most destitute children, those that, in the words of the committee, are "practically starving." The meals are kept scanty and unattractive in order that no child will accept them unless compelled to by sheer hunger. In addition to this safeguard, careful investigations of the circumstances of the children are from time to time made. The meals are given free of charge to the children, and the cost to the committee is less than one cent per meal,—including the manager's salary of \$500 a year. Yet, despite all the restrictions by which it is surrounded,—his charity is to-day feeding two and one-half per cent. of the total child population of the city.

The results of this feeding, poor and insufficient as it is, have been most beneficial, both from a physical and mental point of view. Educationally, I am informed by experienced teachers, the results have been most inspiring. The children both learn and remember better than before. But it is felt upon all sides,

that this charity, admirable as it is in many ways, only touches the fringe of the problem, and the demand is made for definite municipal action, upon a much more generous basis to take the place of private philanthropy. It is difficult, in fact, practically impossible, to form any idea of the extent of such private philanthropy throughout the country. Almost every industrial center has its "free dinner association," and in almost every case the authorities find that private effort is inadequate, and that there are many children who cannot afford to pay even one cent for a meal. If the cent is insisted upon, they must go hungry. This is important to us in America, because it has been the experience wherever similar experiments have been tried here. In Chicago, for instance, at the Oliver Goldsmith School, free dinners have been provided for a large number of children for some time past. Here, as in England, it was found that a number of children could no more afford a penny for a meal than they could afford to dine at the Auditorium Hotel.

In Berlin, and several other German cities, children are fed in the public schools upon a plan which provides that those must pay who can, while those who cannot are given their meals free of charge at the public expense. As a rule, however, these German experiments are confined to schools situated in the poorest districts. As yet, the German authorities have not gone so far as to provide meals for all children, irrespective of their circumstances.

In Italy. Much the same plan is followed in Reggia Emilia, San Remo, and some other Italian cities, though the movement is more widespread in Italy than in Germany. There is one Italian city, however, which has for some time past gone very much farther than any other city that I know of, though his excellency, the Italian ambassador at Washington, informs me that there are other Italian cities which have adopted the same plan. Vercelli is a city of about 25,000 inhabitants in the province of Novara, Piedmont. Its fame chiefly rests upon its fine library which contains a wonderful collection of ancient manu-

scripts, some of them of fabulous value. In this little municipality, then, the city fathers have for a long time provided free meals for every child attending the public schools, and made attendance at the meals absolutely compulsory as to the school itself! Every child must attend school and partake of the meals, unless provided with a doctor's certificate to the effect that to attend the classes, or to partake of the school meals, would be injurious to its health. Further, medical inspection is also compulsory, and is accompanied by free medical attendance. The results appear to have been most beneficial physically, and the educational gains resulting from this intelligent, ordered and regular feeding have been enormous. It is unlikely, however, that such a system will be adopted in the United States for many years to come, notwithstanding its many undoubted advantages.

In Christiania, Trondhjem, and a number of other Norwegian cities, the municipality provides all children who desire to avail themselves of it with a nutritious midday meal, irrespective of their ability to pay. The entire cost of the system is met by taxation. This has been felt by the Norwegian authorities to be the simplest and best method of dealing with a grave problem. It avoids the difficulties which inevitably arise when there is a distinct class of beneficiaries created. "Where all are equally welcome none are paupers," they say. With its simple, homogeneous population, this direct method is admirably adapted to Norway, however little suited it might be to the needs of a cosmopolitan nation like ours. The free dinner is a part of Norway's admirable educational system, which abounds with features well worthy of being copied. One of these is an arrangement whereby the school children from the cities are taken, twice a month in winter, and three or four times a month in the summer, on excursions into the country. The children from the country districts are, in the same manner, taken into the cities. The railroads have to carry the children at a purely nominal cost, which is also met out of the public funds.

When I applied to one of the members of the municipal council of Trondhjem for information as to the working of the school-meals system, he replied:

"You can best judge that, perhaps, from the fact that although the scheme was bitterly opposed when first it was proposed by a small group of radicals and socialists, it is now unanimously supported by all sections. There is now no demand whatever for its curtailment or abandonment. Educationally, we have found that it pays. It is possible now to educate children who before could not be educated because they were undernourished. The percentage of 'backward children' has been greatly reduced, notwithstanding that the test is more severe and searching. Economically, we believe that we can see in the system the gradual conquest of pauperism made possible."

In Belgium
and
Switzerland.

In Brussels, and other Belgian cities, good mid-day meals are provided for all children who care to partake of them. A small fee, equal to about two cents, is charged for each meal, but those children who cannot afford to pay are given their meals just the same. There is also an excellent system of medical inspection in connection with the schools. Every child is medically examined at least once every ten days. Its eyes, ears, and general physical condition are overhauled. If it looks weak and puny, they give it doses of cod liver oil, or some suitable tonic. The greatest care is taken to see that no child goes ill-shod, ill clad, or ill fed. There is also a regular dental examination in connection with every school at regular periods.

In several Swiss towns the authorities for a long time granted substantial subsidies to private philanthropic bodies, leaving to them the organization of systems for providing school meals and the whole administration of the funds. But this method proved to be very unsatisfactory. It led to abuses of various kinds, and sectarian jealousies were aroused. Moreover, it proved to be a most extravagant method, the cost being disproportionate to the results. Consequently, the practice has been very generally aban-

doned, and most of the municipalities have adopted the direct management of the school meals as a distinct part of the school system. The plan generally followed is that of Germany. Those who can must pay, but those who cannot pay must be fed.

But it is to France that we must turn for the most extensive and successful system of school meals. Those who, particularly since the publication of Robert Hunter's book, *Poverty*, have advocated the introduction of some system of school dinners in this country, have with practical unanimity pointed to the French *cantines scolaires* as the model to be copied. For that reason, and not less for its own interest, it may be worth while giving a somewhat fuller account of the French system and its history.

The school-canteen idea is a development of an old and interesting custom, borrowed by the French from Switzerland, the little land of so many valuable experiments and ideals. The custom still obtains in Switzerland to some extent, though not so extensively as formerly, of newly married couples giving a small gift of money, immediately after the wedding ceremony, to the school funds as a sort of thanksgiving for their education. These funds are used to provide shoes and clothing for poor scholars who would otherwise be unable to attend school.

In France. In 1849, the time of the Second Republic, the mayor of the second *Arrondissement* of Paris conceived the idea of introducing this Swiss custom into Paris. Accordingly a fund was created, called the Swiss benevolent fund. Before long the name fell into disuse, and we find the *caisse des ecoles*, or school funds, spoken of with no reference to their Swiss origin or to their benevolent purpose. In the latter days of the Second Empire, in April, 1867, the Chamber of Deputies passed a primary instruction law, which was drafted by M. Duruy, the minister of public instruction, providing that any municipal council might, subject to the approval of the prefect, create in the school districts under its

jurisdiction a "school fund." The object of these school funds was to be the encouragement of regular attendance at school, either by a system of rewards to successful students, or material help in the shape of food, clothing, or shoes to necessitous ones. These funds were to be raised by (1) voluntary contributions; (2) subventions by the school authorities, the city, or the state. Where deemed advisable, several school districts might unite in the creation of a joint fund for their common benefit.

But the law of 1867, so far at least as the school funds were concerned, was little more than a pious expression of opinion in favor of an idea. Three years later the Franco-Prussian war broke out with its fury and devastation, and, as war always does, set back all reforms. Not till 1874, three years after the terrible bloodshed of the Paris Commune, was anything done. Then the district of Montmartre and one or two others raised funds. Montmartre is a district of some 200,000 inhabitants, which has always been characterized by a strong radical or socialistic sentiment. From a pamphlet issued by the managers of the school fund in that district, soon after its establishment in 1874, it appears that they paid little attention to the subject of giving prizes, deeming it of more importance to provide good strong shoes and warm clothing for the poorer children. Next, it seems, they undertook to provide outfits for some girls who had won scholarships at the *Ecole Normale* (Normal School), but were too poor to dress themselves well enough to attend that institution. So, from the very first, the idea of using the school funds to provide children with the necessities of life prevailed. As a result there was soon developed a nucleus of bodies dealing with poverty as it presented itself in the area of educational effort, and, what is equally important, public opinion was being educated and accustomed to the idea. It was, therefore, an easy transition to compulsory provision for the feeding of children.

In 1882 a law was passed *compelling* the establishment of school funds in all parts of France, but leaving the application of such funds still at the discretion of the authorities. So it happens that the *caisse des ecoles* are universal in France, but the *cantines scolaires* are by no means so. The latter are, however, quite common throughout France, and by no means confined to Paris. There is no official record of the number of districts in which canteens have been established, because the districts are not obliged to make returns showing how their school funds are expended.

Since the state now makes education compulsory, and itself provides the means of enforcing the law, the managers of the school funds do not have to devise schemes to induce a regular attendance at school. They are therefore free to use their funds in such manner as seems to them best calculated to promote the health of the children. This they do mainly by the following means: (1) Free meals, or meals provided at cost; (2) provision of shoes and clothing where necessary; (3) free medical attendance; (4) sending weak, debilitated and sick children to the sea-side or the country, homes being maintained, or in some cases subsidized for the purpose.

This last-mentioned feature of the French plan is most interesting. It appears to have been adopted as a result of favorable reports upon the working of a similar plan in Switzerland. The managers of the Montmartre fund, for instance, purchased a great mansion with a magnificent park, and to this delightful spot, not many miles from Paris, the children are sent in batches and kept for two or three weeks at a time, much to their physical betterment. There are several of these "school colonies" maintained by the various school funds of Paris, and the city government subsidizes them to the extent of about \$40,000 a year. The custom of providing a special grant, or subsidy, in aid of these colonies is quite common throughout the whole of France. The importance of

these healthbuilding institutions, and the provisions made for the medical care of sick children cannot be overestimated. To give an idea of what is meant by medical care alone, it is only necessary to refer to a recent inspection in the New York public schools. Out of 7,000 children examined, fully one-third were found to be suffering from defective eyesight, while more than 17 per cent suffered from defects so serious as to interfere with their chances of ever earning a living, as well as with their general health. A similar investigation in the public schools of Minnesota recently showed that there were 70,000 children with defective vision of the most serious nature, less than 10 per cent of whom were provided with glasses. In a very large number of cases the parents are simply too poor to buy glasses. Such children would, in Paris, be provided with the necessary glasses and oculist's care out of the school funds. And there would be no suggestion of pauperism about it, no humiliation; it is the child's right. Medical inspection is thorough, and the American witnessing it is very apt to feel ashamed of the farcical "inspections" so common in this great and wealthy country.

For a long time, whenever food was given, the managers of the school funds simply issued coupons, or orders upon some restaurant, entitling the holder to so many meals at a given cost. Usually some teacher or charitable worker was deputed to accompany the child to see that it actually got what it was intended to get. There was no system. But in 1877 the prefect of the Seine appointed a commission to study the question, raised by some socialists, of how good a warm meal might be provided in the schools at a low cost. Most of the managers of the school funds treated the matter in a very lukewarm, indifferent sort of way, and the commissioners reported that all they had been able to ascertain was that good meals could be provided at an average cost of twenty-five centimes (five cents) each. So the matter dropped and was not again heard of until

the trying winter of 1881. Then it was suggested that, purely as an experiment, the children of school age whose parents were receiving poor relief should be fed. The managers of the Montmartre school at once volunteered to undertake the experiment, and their example was soon followed by others. They did not long confine the meals to the children of pauper parents, but at an early stage of the experiment extended it so as to include all children. The example of Montmartre was very soon followed, and within a year there were fifteen canteens which had been served between them, 1,110,827 "portions." One-third of these "portions" were meat, each weighing twenty grammes, one-third were bowls of soup, and the other third portions of vegetables, these varying with the season. The number of portions paid for by the children was 736,526, and the number given to children too poor to pay, 374,301. It should be said, perhaps, that a most searching investigation was made to make sure of the inability of children's parents to pay. The total cost of the meals was 59,264 francs, of which amount the children paid 36,776 francs. After a while, when they had gathered experience in the management of the canteens, the managers found that it was possible to increase the size of the portions of meat and, at the same time, to cut down expenses by nearly 50 per cent.

**The Workings
of the Paris
System.**

Nowadays the cost of a meal, consisting of a bowl of good soup, a plate of meat, two kinds of vegetables, and bread *ad libitum*, is fifteen centimes (three cents). That is the sum paid by the children, and I have been assured over and over again by those in charge of various canteens that it is more than sufficient to pay the cost. There would be a not inconsiderable profit if all children paid for their meals, but that is not by any means the case. When a child's parents are too poor to pay the full price, and that fact has been ascertained by the investigators, they are permitted to pay less, even as little as two

and a half centimes, or half a cent. The policy is to encourage as many as possible to pay the full price, or such sums as they can muster. But the very poor are never turned away, and in the poorer quarters thousands of children are fed gratuitously, especially in winter, when in Paris, as elsewhere, there is more distress due to sickness and interrupted employment. In the poor quarter of Eppinette the children's fees amount to only about 20 per cent of the cost, while in the wealthier quarters they amount to 75 or even 85 per cent. In an ordinary industrial district, like Batignolles, the children pay about 45 per cent on a yearly average.

The municipal council of Paris makes an annual subsidy to cover the natural deficit of the canteens. These deficits vary from year to year, but the total subsidies required for the three years, 1901-1903, amounted to \$200,000. In connection with this question of financial management there are two items worth noticing. One is the fact that private subscriptions to the school funds show a great falling off now that in practice they have become incorporated in the municipal government. It has not been found that citizens are willing to contribute to the funds now that the city has assumed responsibility for them. The other fact is that the expenditure in poor relief on account of children is very much less. Children have always served as the best of all reasons why poor relief should be given. Now, when that plea is made by the applicant for relief, he or she is referred to the school canteens where the children are sure of being fed.

Everything is as neat and clean as it could possibly be, and the cooking bears out the reputation of the French as the master-cooks of the world. There is, apparently, no "graft," and that is probably due in large part to the fact that the meals are not confined to pauper children, who might, alas, be badly served with impunity. From the first it has been one of the chief aims of the authorities to keep the canteens free from the taint of pauperism. The children of the well-to-do are encouraged to attend—not, indeed, by direct solicitation, but by making the

meals and the surroundings as attractive as possible. And the plan succeeds very well. No child knows whether the child next it has paid for its dinner or not. Small tickets are issued, each child going through a little box-office, which only permits of one being in at a time. If a little boy or girl claims to be too poor to pay for a meal ticket, no questions are asked, the ticket is issued and the child's name and address noted. By next day, or at most in two days, inquiries have been made. If it is found that the parents can afford it, they are compelled to pay the full price and to refund whatever sum may be due to the canteen for the meals their child has had. If they are found to be really too poor to pay, tickets are issued to the child for as long as it may be necessary. In such cases the account is not charged against the parents. No distinction is made between the tickets of those who pay and those who do not, and it is thus practically impossible for the child who has paid for its meal to jeer at its less fortunate, dependent comrade. Thus the self-respect of the poorest children is preserved, a most important fact as every one who has studied the problems of charitable relief knows.

Another highly important factor is the presence of the teachers at the meals. Fully 90 per cent of the teachers use the canteens more or less regularly, though there is absolutely no compulsion in the matter. They prefer to do so on account of the cheapness and wholesome character of the meals. I have myself sat down to a three-cent dinner in the company of a well-known member of the Chamber of Deputies, a professor of languages, and several teachers, each one of us having gone through the little box-office and bought his ticket in exactly the same manner as the most ragged urchin. All the children are provided with cheap paper napkins, and the presence of the teachers is a sort of practical education in table manners. The canteen serves, therefore, as a great educational and ethical force as well as a remedy for one of the worst evils arising out of the national poverty problem. The *cantine scolaire* is a great institution, well worthy of careful study.

**The Situation
in America.**

In sixteen schools in New York city investigated by the writer, 12,800 children were privately examined, and of that number 987, or 7.71 per cent., were reported as having had no breakfast upon the day of the inquiry, while 1,963, or 15.32 per cent, had only bread with tea or coffee, and often too little of that to appease their hunger. Another investigation was made by Dr. H. M. Lechstrecker, an inspector of the state board of charities. His investigation was made in the poorest schools of the city, and his report indicates that 14 per cent of the 10,707 children examined went to these schools practically breakfastless, and that about 82 per cent were underfed. In *The Bitter Cry of the Children* I have given figures from Buffalo, Philadelphia and Chicago equally as serious as those from New York. Out of a total of 40,746 children examined in these four great cities, no less than 14,121, or 34.65 per cent, were reported as going to school either without breakfast or with miserably poor breakfasts of bread and tea or coffee, wholly insufficient to enable them to do the work required of them. Educators everywhere are agreed that by far the most important cause of backwardness and inefficiency among our public school children is this chronic underfeeding of which so many are the victims. It has been found by careful experiment and investigation that children who are backward in their school studies, in a large majority of cases, become normal under the influence of good food. The importance of this will be seen when I add that there are, judging from investigations made in California by Professor W. S. Monroe, no less than 1,500,000 such sub-normal children in the public schools of the United States.

Among the children of the poor the milder forms of tuberculosis, scrofulosis and tuberculosis of the bones and hip joints are very common. If the teacher is sufficiently well educated to recognize these children, something can be done to improve their condition by intelligent

breathing exercises and teaching them how to develop their lungs. But little good will result from the best physical exercises if the causes of the disease are not removed. The children remain weak and pallid and their emaciation progresses until they become incurable. Dr. S. A. Knopf, a leading authority upon the subject, declares emphatically that underfeeding is a prime factor in the causation of scrofulosis and tuberculosis in children. He is an earnest advocate of school luncheons, and points out that in Boston the plan of feeding school children of this type has been tried on a small scale with important beneficial results. "After a few weeks of such persistent administration of good luncheons," he says, "the previously underfed children improved in appearance and often gained from two or three pounds in weight."

Physically, this underfeeding is disastrous. It has been shown over and over again that the children of the poor are behind better favored children in physical development in every way, often as much as two or three years. They are shorter in stature, lighter in weight, narrower of chest, and feebler of grip. Moreover, the evils do not end with school life; for the constitution is so enfeebled that in after years the results are extremely severe. The victims of poverty in childhood fall an easy prey to disease; they are soon exhausted and become unfitted early in life for the work of the world. Much of our pauperism and crime may be traced back to this evil of underfeeding in childhood.

This, then, is the problem which confronts us in the United States to-day.

The time must come, and the sooner the better, when we must deal with the problem. Some of the Utopians among us would doubtless like to see the all-embracing compulsory system of Vercelli adopted, but it is most likely that we shall find the French methods better suited to our needs.

The Industrial Viewpoint

CONDUCTED BY GRAHAM TAYLOR

The industrial significance of infectious disease is being deeply impressed upon Chicago and the west, as it was upon New York and the east, by the Tuberculosis Exhibition. Faced by the facts which are there so graphically presented, seeing is believing. But to stir those industrial forces to action whose concerted effort could do most to stamp out the disease, is necessary to any very large or permanent gain in the crusade against tuberculosis. A good beginning toward this end has already been made at Chicago. The session of the opening conference which was devoted to industrial conditions promotive of infection, so effectively stated the case, that nothing can better serve the cause than the facts and figures fresh from occupational sources presented on that occasion. We therefore reproduce some of the statements in condensed form in hope of the wider publicity which may be given them as they are read or quoted from these pages. The co-operation of the City Club committee on public health, and the Chicago Federation of Labor with the Tuberculosis Institute already promises far-reaching practical results. The federation, after hearing the presentation of the subject at their hall, not only arranged to visit that exhibition in a body, but sent out a circular letter to all unions in the city, urging them to arrange with the Tuberculosis Institute for stereopticon presentations at their own regular meetings.

By the courtesy of the undersigned, we are enabled to furnish our readers at least with the bare facts, which were far more graphically portrayed in papers, for the full form of which, we wish we could command space.

Occupational Conditions of Tuberculosis.
Alice Hamilton, M. D.
Hull House
Tuberculosis is a disease of the working classes. When an epidemic of scarlet fever, diphtheria, influenza, or pneumonia breaks out in a city no one can predict where it will strike, where the death rate will be highest. Rich

and poor suffer alike from these diseases. But if one could have a map of the city showing the occupation and wages of the population, one could mark out with a fair degree of precision the parts of the city which would have the largest number of cases of tuberculosis. The death rate in parts of the lower east side in New York has been given as fifty to fifty-nine per 10,000 inhabitants, that of an area north of Central Park has less than twenty. The two wards in Chicago where the poorest people live,—the fourteenth and the ninth,—had in 1904, a death rate of 33.8 and 32 respectively, but the well-to-do twenty-first and the sixth, had only fourteen and ten.

Everything which makes the life of the workingman harder, everything which is attendant upon poverty, makes for the increase of this disease. There are some interesting statistics as to the height and weight of school children in Scotland, classified according to the economic standing of their parents. Children whose families live in one room houses average lower in stature and lighter in weight than children whose families have two rooms, and these again are inferior to the children whose families have the luxury of three rooms. The number of tuberculous children also follows closely this economic grading, being 3.6% for the three roomers, 5.9% for the two-roomers, and 8.3% for the one-roomers. So that the child of poor parents has from the outstart a severe handicap. The factory children of Manchester are on an average two inches shorter and weigh from three to eight pounds less than children of the same class who do not work in the factories. When one remembers that a child predisposed to tuberculous infection needs above all things a free out-of-door life, one realizes how much child labor helps to swell the ranks of consumptives.

For the adult workman, the principal conditions which affect the morbidity and mortality rate of tuberculosis are first the character of his home surroundings. The difference between the country and city death rate from this disease is chiefly that in large cities—which have sometimes a rate half again as high as the country—much of the work is done indoors in crowded workrooms and there is much more overcrowding in the dwellings. Rubner of Berlin says that tuberculosis and crowded rooms go hand in hand. Chalmers in Glasgow states that the death rate from respiratory diseases is 47.8 per 10,000 population

among people living in one and two room houses, while in houses of five and more it is 11.4.

The next factor to be considered is occupation, and though it is difficult to say for just how much this is responsible, still we know it to be a factor of great importance. To simply compare the death rates from tuberculosis of two different occupations and conclude that the one which has the greater is by so much the more unhealthful would be to form a hasty and inaccurate conclusion. Some occupations are naturally the refuge of the physically unfit and have a high mortality rate from all diseases. A boy who is weak, under-sized, predisposed to tuberculosis, does not become a stone mason or a structural iron worker, or a seaman, nor does a strong powerful lad usually go into a sweat shop or become a waiter or a saloon musician. But after all allowances have been made for such determining factors in occupation, it still remains true that certain trades have an abnormally high death rate from consumption which must depend in part upon the conditions in the trade. Sometimes it is the character of the work itself, sometimes the conditions in the workshops and sometimes the fault lies in neither of them but in the low standard of living of the employees.

We may divide under four heads the characteristics of an employment which tend to increase consumption among those engaged in it.

Insanitary Conditions of Employment.

First, insanitary conditions in the place of employment. Second, a low rate of wages. Third, fatigue from excessive

exertion.

Fourth, long and irregular hours of work.

The first must be considered under two sub-heads; the hygienic surroundings which are not inherent in the trade itself, and those conditions which are to a certain extent necessitated by the character of the trade.

Crowded, ill-ventilated, dark, dirty rooms are not necessary to any sort of industry and are therefore entirely preventible. The importance of dirt and overcrowding in the causation of consumption among factory workers forces itself on us increasingly as a more careful study is made of the history of consumptives from the industrial classes. Recently a study made in Berlin showed that among 200 consumptives, seventy-five had contracted the disease in their work places. An English investigation at about the same time gave the same report of 303 out of 550 consumptive wage earners. In all these cases the victims had worked in the same rooms with consumptives, had breathed air filled with dirt from the sputum-covered floors and had also doubtless breathed infection from the droplets of sputum expelled into the air by the coughing of the consumptives. Such tiny droplets carrying tubercule bacilli can travel for the distance of over a yard, so that for workmen to be

closely crowded together is a dangerous thing when one of them is consumptive. And it would be hard to find a workroom without more than one in it.

As for the trades which are inherently dangerous, the dust producing trades easily lead as producers of tuberculosis and especially those in which the dust particles are very irritating. Stone-cutting, knife grinding, cigar making, working in lead and copper mines, all these are trades which attract strong well-developed men, but which have an enormous tuberculosis death rate.

In England there has been a reduction in the death rate from this disease among the textile workers since the passage and enforcement of laws regulating conditions in the factories. Thus in 1870 the rate among weavers in a certain part of England was forty and 1890 it had dropped to twenty-one, while in England as a whole the rate had fallen during that time only from thirty-six to twenty-five. The French textile towns in which silk factories are kept very damp and the air is full of silk fluff have a rate which represents one-sixth of their whole mortality.

Low Wages and Consumption.

Low wages bring in their train a whole series of conditions which are now recognized as predisposing causes of consumption. Low wages mean overcrowded houses, rear, or basement tenements, bad air, poor food, poor clothing, anxiety, children sent early to work, temptation to intemperance. In Hamburg the statistics collected in connection with the income tax show that people who pay taxes on an income under 1,000 marks have a death rate from tuberculosis almost four times as great as that among people with an income over 3,500 marks. Tuberculosis mortality in Hamburg keeps pace regularly with the income, rising as that falls. In Berlin, among workmen insured in the industrial insurance, almost every other death is from tuberculosis.

Fatigue a Factor.

Excessive fatigue is a factor of increasing importance as the life of a workman becomes increasingly strenuous. The introduction of machinery is apt to make the work more, rather than less exhausting as the workman must keep pace with the enormously rapid machine. It also tends to make possible the "speeding up" so common now in all industries. There are trades which require enormous physical strength and which therefore show a low mortality rate during the earlier decades of life because the workers are picked men. But the later large mortality shows the exhausting nature of the work.

Long and Irregular Hours.

Long and irregular hours of work are certainly factors in increasing consumption, but it is very hard to disentangle this cause from those that are bound up with it. Day laborers have everything

against them; hours of employment, nature of work, low and irregular wages. They are also partly recruited from the tramp class and their ranks are constantly swelled by the wornout workmen of all trades who have slipped down until they land in this class to die in it. Even when these have contracted tuberculosis in their own trade they are accredited when they die to the class as day laborers.

In Glasgow, the casual laborers have at least double the average city death rate from consumption during each separate decade of life, and between the ages of forty-five and fifty-five their rate is twelve times that of the professional class. Alcoholism undoubtedly is both a cause and a result of long and irregular hours of work and it is of course, one of the most potent predisposing causes of consumption. Domestic servants have the highest death rate among women workers and probably this is due partly to their long hours, partly to the fact that they are miserably housed and partly to the indoor nature of the work.

The conclusions are so obvious as hardly to need statement. Everything which tends to improve the condition of the industrial classes tends to diminish the deaths from consumption in their ranks. Higher wages, a shorter work day, guarantee against irregularity of employment and of hours, restriction of child labor, strict factory laws with adequate inspection,—even cheap and rapid transportation facilities making suburban homes a possibility—all these things as they tend to healthful living tend to lessen the ravages of this most dreaded disease.

Cigarmakers and Consumption. The general circulation recently accorded to the statistics of the Cigarmakers' Union relative to the estimated decrease in deaths from tuberculosis of members of that organization, from 51 per cent in 1888 to 24 per cent in 1905, lent very especial interest to the address of President George W. Perkins of the Cigarmakers' International Union.

After discussing the subject of occupation and tuberculosis in a general way, pointing out the high rate of mortality from that disease among workingmen, he contrasted figures showing the death rate to be 541 in every 100,000 marble and stone cutters, 477 among the same number of cigarmakers, 453 plasterers and whitewashers, 436 compositors, printers and pressmen, and so on down the line of so-called working class occupations, with the low rate among bankers, brokers and officials of 92 in 100,000. This disparity he attributed almost

wholly to low wages, long hours, unsanitary shop and home conditions, and inability to secure proper food and clothing. He then devoted himself to an analysis of the vital statistics of the Cigarmakers' Union, which has for a long period of years kept accurate records through its system of sick and death benefit. We quote him in part:

The vital statistics of the Cigarmakers' International Union, which are open to the inspection of anyone, show that in 1888, two years after the adoption of the eight hour working day in our trade, fifty-one per cent of the deaths in that year were caused by tuberculosis. In 1890 there were 211 deaths all told, of which number 104 were caused by consumption, which shows that the per cent of those who die from this cause had been reduced to forty-nine per cent. In 1905 the total number of deaths was 478, of which consumption claimed 119 or twenty-four per cent.

Our records show that in 1890 we expended all told for death benefits \$26,043.00, of which amount about forty-nine per cent or \$12,761.07 was paid on account of those who died from consumption. In 1905 we expended all told for death benefits \$162,818.82, of which amount about twenty per cent or \$32,150.00 was paid on account of those who died from consumption. This shows that seventeen years ago about one-half of the amount expended for death benefits was on account of those who died from consumption and that to-day the outlay for this purpose has been reduced to about twenty per cent., or more than one-half. These are actual facts taken from the records in our office.

In 1890 the total amount expended for sick benefit was \$64,660.47 and our estimate based on the actual figures for 1905 indicates that about forty-nine per cent, or \$31,683.63 was paid to members suffering from tuberculosis. In 1905 the total amount expended for sick benefit was \$165,917.80, of which amount about twenty-four per cent, or \$41,147.61 was paid those suffering from tuberculosis. This shows that the expenditure for sick benefit on account of those suffering from tuberculosis has been reduced from forty-nine per cent. in 1890 to twenty-four per cent. in 1905, which is a reduction of more than half and is in keeping with the general reduction in the expenditure for death benefit in the same period.

These statistics without the shadow of a doubt support the assertion that increased wages, shorter hours and better sanitary shop and home conditions brought about by affiliation with the Cigar Makers International Union are responsible for this wonderful improvement. Despite the fact that there has been a marked improvement, the further fact that we still expend twenty-four per cent. of the outlay for sick benefit to those suffering from tuberculosis and that

twenty per cent. of the amount expended for death benefit on account of those who die from tuberculosis, calls for the earnest co-operation of all citizens in an effort to stamp out this disease.

Society has a right to and should protect itself against this disease, and all should unite in demanding remedial legislation. We may provide for means of treatment and cure, but as long as the causes leading to the disease remain, it will always be with us.

In addition to the many excellent suggestions set forth as means of prevention, I suggest that in all factories there should be proper sanitary conditions, proper ventilation, and that all operatives should face in one direction. In many factories the benches or tables are so arranged that the operatives face each other. Those suffering from tuberculosis, when sneezing, coughing or even talking or breathing, do so directly in the faces of those sitting opposite. This is an important remedy and can be executed without any additional cost to the manufacturers and employers. Those who will not adopt this plan should be forced to do so.

Tuberculosis in Packingtown. Dr. Caroline Hedger gave an account of an investigation in the stock yards neighborhood which she made for the University of Chicago Settlement. The death rate from tuberculosis in that region is ten more per 10,000 than the average for the whole city. Accordingly, a house to house investigation was undertaken, the sources of food were examined, and the relation of work to the disease was considered in a district immediately surrounding the yards. The district chosen extends over four square miles including the yards. Its general aspect is poor, the streets dirty, the air polluted by the yards and the city dump, which is located in the western edge of the district. The fifth laden Bubbly Creek, the outlet of the sewers from the yards, bounds the district on the north, while a surface ditch in lieu of a sewer extends along the western edge. These sources of air pollution are all preventable and should be prevented.

Taking up the housing conditions, Dr. Hedger said that, compared with other parts of Chicago where tuberculosis exceeds the average for the whole city, the stock yards region is sparsely settled.

Of 150 houses visited, where cases of tuberculosis had occurred, but fifteen were found to have a history of other cases. Although one of the houses had had thirteen

deaths from tuberculosis within its walls, the girl who died there in 1902 had contracted the disease elsewhere and came there to die. In not a single house in the district could the disease be traced to the house exclusive of other sources. The houses averaged two stories in height, yards in the rear were general—only ten not having them, and there were many narrow passages between houses. The narrow passages, with closed blinds in the houses to prevent inspection by neighbors, were the chief causes for dark rooms. Of totally dark rooms, twenty-nine were used as bedrooms and twelve as kitchens. Plumbing and water closet arrangements were bad. To the average apartment there were 4.5 children and 6.3 adults, the average number of rooms being 3.8, while observation indicated that at least four people commonly sleep in a small bedroom.

The number who sleep with closed windows was estimated from conversation and observation, and was undoubtedly large.

These last factors show that a campaign of education is necessary to bring about ventilation and the adjustment of wages and rent that will enable a workingman in the yards to provide more bedrooms for his family. A study of 148 families in the district showed the average rent to be \$7.30. In a study of the yards published in the *American Journal of Sociology*, Mr. Bushnell has shown that the average yearly wage of the unskilled is \$347.36, skilled is \$512.47. It will be seen therefore that rent takes from fifteen to twenty-five per cent. of the earnings. German statistics have demonstrated that of 10,000 people living with an income of from \$250 to \$300, more than three times as many die from tuberculosis as among 10,000 with an income of \$850 and over. The relation of wages to tuberculosis for those having incomes between these figures is larger or smaller proportionately. If this relation holds good here, low wages are seen to be an important factor in the tuberculosis death rate.

The usual careless handling of food supplies and exposure to street dust is to be found. The long irregular hours of work, low wages, precluding other diversions and poorly arranged dietary, doubtless increase the consumption of alcohol and the tendency to contract tuberculosis.

Visits to the yards revealed many exceedingly bad conditions of work. A large proportion of the employes work by electric light, and one of the cannerymen gave assurance that in winter he did not see daylight, except on Sunday, for months. No spitting signs were visible. Water closets were in very bad condition and frequently were insufficiently separated from food preparation departments. Dense steam was prevalent, and in many instances could have been obviated simply by the putting in of a door or small partition. Women painted and labeled cans in an atmosphere almost unbearable from turpentine, and with a speed and

fierceness of labor that made them seem more driven than the hung up carcasses that rushed along on the cranes overhead, in other parts of the plant.

In summing up, we have as conditions in the stock yards district favorable to the spread of tuberculosis:

1. Low average wage.
2. Comparatively high rent.
3. Consequent crowding in houses.
4. Factory conditions of deficient day and sunlight, deficient ventilation, deficient regulation of spitting.
5. Poorly managed dietaries.
6. Air pollution from various sources.

**The Canadian
Government
Investigates.**

A timely and impartial report as to facts in an industrial dispute is of the utmost value. It may frequently be the basis of a popular sentiment which shall effectually decide the point at controversy. The Canadian government, as pointed out in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS for April, recognizes the importance of getting before the people at the earliest possible moment the exact facts of labor troubles. It realizes that in the exigencies of industrial strife misconceptions of the real situation may frequently lead to exaggerated notions of real or imagined injustices. At any rate, it believes that the people are entitled to a fair and square account of the issue—an account in which they may repose more confidence than in the *ex parte* statements of either side.

We mentioned the statement of English printers induced to come from England to Winnipeg, under the representation that there was no strike of the Typographical Union and that they were not to act as strike breakers. Their complaint was forwarded to the department of labor. The matter was immediately investigated by the Deputy Minister of Labor, W. L. Mackenzie King. His official report is now made public in the April number of the *Labour Gazette*, the publication of the Canadian department of labor. We quote in part:

Taking into consideration only such facts as have been admitted by each of the parties, or have not been called in question in the public statement either has issued, it appears beyond doubt that Brunning went to England as the agent of certain master printers in Winnipeg whose employes were on strike; he was paid for so doing; and the express purpose of his mission was to bring out men to fill the places of the men

on strike; that Brunning deliberately and intentionally misrepresented the facts to the men whom he induced to come to Canada, or to most of them, by representing that they were being brought to Canada to fill positions which the growth of the printing trade in the west has created, and which they could fill in an honorable way, also by carefully concealing as well as denying the existence of any strike in Winnipeg or any intention on his part to have them act as strike breakers; whereas he knew all the time of the existence of the Winnipeg strike, and had as the chief object of his mission the securing of men to fill the places of Canadian workmen on strike; moreover, that he misrepresented the true facts in advertising himself, whether intentionally or unintentionally, as the agent of the Winnipeg Printers' Board of Trade, when, according to the declared resolution of that board, he was not their agent; and also in giving in the name of that body a two years' or permanent guarantee of work to each of the persons he engaged, which purported to be a genuine agreement, but which is admitted by the parties in whose name it was given not to be worth the paper it was written upon.

**False
Representations
to Strike
Breakers.**

In my opinion, too much importance cannot be attached to the serious nature of the fraudulent practices to which the English printers have directed the attention of the public authorities, or to the possible consequences which may follow a continuation of such practices. A strike presents a situation serious enough of itself without that situation being aggravated through any concealment of facts or false representations which may draw innocent third parties into the conflict, subjecting them to opprobrium which is undeserved and arousing feelings of antagonism to fellow workmen in other parts of the empire where there should be only the most cordial relationships. Canadian workingmen are not complaining in this connection against men being employed to take their places while on strike; this is an alternative they are obliged to face once they declare a strike; they are asking only that in such a situation a sense of fair play shall prevail, and that neither party shall profit at the expense of the other through practices which place innocent third parties in a false position. If a man wishes to take a place which has been rendered vacant through another going out on strike he has a perfect right to do so. In view, however, of the possible consequences of such an action on his part, it is in justice due to him that he should understand the circumstances of his hiring in this connection.

The Parliament of Canada last year passed an act respecting false representations to induce or deter immigration. This act was passed with a view of fraudulent representations as the British printers complain of. It is, however, of necessity limited

in its application to persons resident in this country. The purpose of parliament in this legislation might, it seems to me, be rendered more effective if an act in regard to the condition of the labor market in Canada were passed by the British Parliament, and would be applicable to persons resident, either temporarily or permanently in the British Isles. Such a statute in Great Britain would enable prosecutions to be summarily commenced there, and the guilty party to be apprehended before innocent third parties were made the victims of fraudulent or false representations and an injustice done to other parties in this country.

**Labor's Justice
Sure but
Too Slow.**

Exceeding fine, if all too slowly, "for the good of the order" and the public interests involved, do the mills of the gods grind in organized labor. But those of us familiar with its ways in history are confident amidst our impatience, that the mills do grind. To the most attentive ears the sound of their grinding in the Chicago Federation of Labor has been almost inaudibly low during these years of terrorism in which the clenched fist and the strong arm have been the power behind the throne, whenever happened to sit upon it temporarily. The squarer the issue was made, even by deadly assault upon the ablest and most reputable leaders in the federation's own hall, or by violent interference with the election of its officers at the point of the revolver, the less courageous and effective has the open effort of the law-abiding majority been, even to rid the federation of domination by the "black-hand" of ruffianism or to purge itself of the contempt of the community. But at last a jurisdictional issue was made, involving the standing of the "Junior Steamfitters' Union," an irregular organization whose only real purpose was to be body-guard of the ruffian saloon keeper who was chief of the mercenaries and directed their "wrecking crews." The American Federation of Labor has sustained the complaint of the plumbers and steamfitters' unions and their helpers and ordered the Chicago Federation of Labor to drop the junior steamfitters from its membership. This was done at its last session, as a "constitutional order," without vote or protest. Thus all the more effectively for

being quietly done the wrongdoers have been ground to fine dust and swept out by an ordinary broom. It might have hurt them less and given them more coveted notoriety to have been thrown out after a pitched battle by tactics like their own. It was evidently very trying thus to be dropped into oblivion without any spectacular plunge or even a ripple to mark the place where they disappeared from view. Every man in Chicago both inside and outside the federation, may well breathe freer for the result, however it was achieved. It may have been less decisive for the way in which it was done. But organized labor can scarcely fail to share with all Chicago the shame and loss of the ignominious failure to punish or even indict the murderous sluggers of Michael Donnelly, the armed ruffians who held up the election of the federation last summer. To the lasting disgrace of its officers who surrendered their custody of the ballot boxes at the point of the revolver, not one of them could be persuaded or shamed to identify a single suspect of the gang rounded up with commendable courage and confidence by the police. Nevertheless we congratulate the Chicago Federation of Labor on its "good riddance of bad rubbish," and on the tardy, yet overwhelming dominance of the ever honest majority over a minority so small and so bad that its power can be accounted for only by too little democracy and too much pusillanimity in the constituent trade unions or their delegates to the federation.

**Both Sides
of the Trade
Agreement.**

With a printers' strike in process throughout the country and with operators and men of the coal fields of America in the midst of conferences which might end in an even more far-reaching industrial conflict, the meeting given up to a discussion of trade agreements at the decennial session of the American Academy of Political and Social Science had the time element strong in it. And those present were fortunate in hearing addresses by the president of the Typothetae of America, and an ex-president of the International Typographical Union.

John Graham Brooks, in an introductory address, had defined the trade agreement as the joint method by which bodies of employers and employes get together periodically to adjust disputes and make contracts. In England the trade agreement has become one of the greatest forces of social stability.

Samuel B. Donnelly, secretary of the general arbitration board of the New York Building Trades, described the working of the joint trade agreement in the building trades in New York, which has been in existence in its present form since April, 1905. Some of the features which he emphasized as the result of experience, are these: (1) unions are guaranteed the privileges and rights held when the first agreement went into effect; (2) employers agree to hire union labor; (3) a majority of each side in the general board is necessary for any decision; without it a conference is held; (4) the executive committee of twelve—half employers and half union men—meet weekly. Its decisions are final, overruled only by a majority of votes of both sides in the general board. Under this agreement, both unions and employers have been accused of violations. Ten members of the Employers' Association have been fined or expelled. There had been three violations by unions—in two instances these have yielded to the solicitation of other unions. The Employers' Association, it will be seen, is able to enforce decisions against its bonded members. A union is able to enforce its decisions upon its individual members. But the unions collectively have no means of enforcing decisions upon individual unions, except by suasion. This agreement has resulted in peace in 75 per cent of the trades in the past three years. It might have proved perfect in a Quaker community of a century ago, but in crowded, cosmopolitan New York, in the struggle for bread, it is put to a severe test. Yet this monthly meeting of representatives of 120 unions behind whom stand 80,000 men, is an educational work.

**Typothetae
and
Typographical
Union.** George H. Ellis of Boston, president of the United Typothetae of America,

introduced his discussion of the trade agreement by a flat-footed declaration that the question of the closed shop is without the province of the trade agreement for decision. "The closed shop," he said, "cannot continue to be a subject for arbitration. Many labor leaders claim that the advocate of the closed shop is an enemy bent on the destruction of the union. I deny this. Was not the settlement of this country itself a protest against the closed shop in religion?" The president of a union was quoted as hoping the trade would become so organized that an employer would send to union headquarters for so many hours of labor, like so many pounds of sugar. The unionist says: "The closed shop is an open shop; just join the union." But Mr. Ellis maintained that entry to a union means allegiance to that union as against social, religious, or political fealty to any other organization. He had personal knowledge, he alleged of perjury committed in the Massachusetts courts, presumably so explained. "This whole proposition is so un-American that enlightened public sentiment will not stand for it. If there is enough enlightenment to reorganize the printers' union on an open shop basis, then they will go on; if not, they will be ignored by the employers and when they have lost their best members, these will organize new unions on open shop lines."

As an example of effective unionism under the open shop, he referred to the pressmen's union, membership in which has increased largely under it, and who have fulfilled their agreements to the letter, "notwithstanding the past few months have put upon them as severe a strain as ever they will be put to."

He held that in the typographical branch of the industry, the closed shop presupposes the power of the union to enforce its demands. Therefore, employers have chafed and their attitude toward the Typographical Union has been estranged—in contrast to the good will in the relations with the Pressmen's Union. "Make the union so attractive to all men

of the trade that the best of them go into it, and there will be no trouble."

In opening his address, Wm. B. Prescott of Baltimore, ex-president of the International Typographical Union, went into the history of trade agreement, maintaining that nearly every piece of machinery for conciliation or arbitration had its origin in the meeting room of a trade union. It is charged that unions foster unrest. He claimed that that is the spirit which produces unions and if we did not have this channel for expression, it would find a violent outlet as in Russia to-day and in early English industrial history.

The great central figure of a workingman's life is the wages he receives—not for himself only, but for his family. Under the factory system, the early factory system, the worker came to see that "a seller, the buyer set the price." The employer bought his labor, like eating his apple, bite by bite, gathering as much profit from the one as satisfaction from the other. Unionism brought a change. He must take his apple whole. In times of industrial stress it had been wages which offered a line of least resistance. Organize labor and the line of least resistance must be looked for elsewhere. So it comes that whether working men in the organized trades are members of the union or not, the organization secures the rate of wages they are paid. This carries with it obligation.

In discussing the trade agreement, the speaker referred to the possibility of industrial-legal machinery—"new courts for new questions born of new conditions." Legal objections are set up against such a plan—but in the end the American people get what they want and reactionaries opposing new methods to meet new conditions are often the most valuable allies of the extreme radical. The main objection to collective bargaining has been, he held, that it offers opportunity for conspiracies against the people. Yet these are not frequent and secret. If there were no union in the land, the consumer would still suffer from such get-rich-quick conspiracies. Collective bargaining he held is the best safeguard against governmental interfer-

ence in its, to him, most obnoxious form—compulsory arbitration.

**Mutual
Government
Within
the Trade.**

Beverly Smith of New York, president of the Lithographers' Association, pointed out that the trade agreement is a relief from industrial warfare; yet at the same time it is not permanent. In the trade agreement, he held, each party seeks the introduction of clauses from which it will reap subsequent advantage. If they fail to make a bargain—war. You could not get a better method to secure industrial conflict than to set two parties down to bargain about something they are diametrically disagreed on. Any contract or agreement to be permanent must contain within itself the machinery for enforcement on the industrial units composing it.

This is recognized in the method of mutual government in the lithographers' trade. This same question which is racking the typographical trade will be handled some day—with us it is peace; with them war. Ours is simply a contract setting up the machinery of mutual government." Joint commissions, local and national, made up of equal delegations of employers and employes, are established from time to time—not permanent institutions but usually for the purpose of settling some dispute. Should a decision be arrived at by them it is final; if not, it goes to a board of arbitration of three members, which is final. Never yet has there been a decision governing trade questions or conditions that has ever been reopened by either party. Decision of such vital questions as overtime and wage scales have been accepted as actually more satisfactory to both sides than old conditions.

As an example of this scheme of mutual government, Mr. Smith referred to ing has been, he held, that it offers opportunity for conspiracies against the people. Yet these are not frequent and secret. If there were no union in the land, the consumer would still suffer from such get-rich-quick conspiracies. Collective bargaining he held is the best safeguard against governmental interfer-

Clubs for Street Boys

William Byron Forbush

Secretary of the General Alliance of Workers with Boys

A street boys' club is an institution which aims to gather boys from the street for safe, pleasant and profitable evenings. It is non-sectarian in its management and work and it endeavors to be all-inclusive in its reach. Its first aim is to get and to hold boys; then it endeavors to educate and uplift them. It usually starts with the large, free, democratic playroom and goes on from that to allure boys into the smaller classrooms, where they are humanized by refined personalities and trained in a variety of useful or artistic crafts.

One hundred and four street boys' clubs in this country have come into notice, nearly all of which employ salaried superintendents, and which reach, it is estimated, one hundred thousand boys every year. There are fifty such clubs in the city of London and a few in Canada and Sweden. It has been thought by some that their development had ceased with the growth of social settlements, but as a matter of fact they have increased in number more rapidly since social settlements came into being.

The earliest organization doing boys' club work in America was started not in a large city but in a small one. It was the Salem Fraternity of Salem, Massachusetts, organized in 1869. The first movement for organizing such clubs was conducted in connection with the International Christian Workers' Association, now defunct. Within a short time sixteen such clubs were begun in Massachusetts and Connecticut and one in New Jersey, of which about half are now in existence. In 1892 the Christian workers' organization came to an end. In the fall of 1895 the General Alliance of Workers with Boys was formed, a fellowship of those interested in all kinds of boys' work; with it many of the leaders of street boys' clubs associated themselves and several street boys' clubs were originated as a result.

The opportunity for leading in the organizing of these city clubs was such an attractive one that in 1898, J. L. Dudley,

who was just leaving the superintendency of the Holyoke Club, began to collect funds for the purpose, giving to his society of which he was president, secretary and treasurer in turn, and apparently sometimes all together, the ambitious name of the National Boys' Club Association. This society never had in its management anyone who was actually connected with street boys' clubs. Indeed, it consisted of a close corporation of from six to eight members, a considerable portion of whom were relatives of the president or salaried officers. The society was successful in six years in collecting nearly \$54,000 and in organizing thirty-one clubs. From the beginning the relations of this association with its "advisory board," a procession of eminent men who were appointed only to resign as soon as they saw that they were not being consulted and could have no part in the supervision of the organization, with the clubs organized by the association, which were usually alienated from their mother, and with the established boys' clubs and workers of the country, were so strained that the association was investigated in the fall of 1905 by a committee from the board of trade of Springfield, the city in which the association had its headquarters. This committee reported that, while no dishonesty was discovered, more skill had been shown in raising funds than in organizing clubs, the society was too much a one-man organization, and too little care had been used in allying and retaining the good-will of the boys' clubs of the country. While this report was being prepared, there had come into being a strong organization of real club leaders under the name of the Federated Boys' Clubs. This organization provided for three classes of members: clubs, superintendents and contributors. The organization is directed by an executive board of nine, three being chosen from each class of members.

When the so-called "National" Boys' Club Association received the report of

its committee of investigation, some effort was made to broaden its fellowship by securing the support of club workers. In response to fifty invitations only two unequivocal acceptances were received. Seeing by this that the association had lost the confidence of the boys' club leaders of the country, the Federated Boys' Clubs made overtures toward amalgamation, with the purpose of re-organization of the association. At a meeting of committees appointed by both bodies an arrangement was made that twenty-five incorporators elected by each should receive the assets of the national association, amounting to a fund of \$10,000, and continue the work. The president of the association, on receiving this report, secured its defeat.

Since that time the Federated Boys' Clubs have gone on to complete their organization, and will begin at once the work of organizing and supervising clubs. Frank S. Mason, secretary of the Bunker Hill Boys' Club of Boston, is the chairman of the new society. It is now announced that the National Boys' Club Association has gone out of the business of organizing clubs, and its president has resigned and is doing some such work on his own account. What has become of the \$10,000 does not appear.

This unfortunate story had to be told to explain why the laudable social work of helping street boys has been so much at a standstill for the past eight years. While the so-called "national" organization had the field, no other society could wisely enter it. Now the Federated Boys' Clubs, conducted by the leaders themselves, may be trusted to bring the movement into unity and coherence and progress. Fortunately the growth of clubs has not ceased. So meager were the resources of the earlier clubs that when a superintendent went away a club was quite likely to die, but of late they have won more local interest and many of them are already well-established social philanthropies.

At first thought it might seem that the social settlements, with their individual and neighborhood work for boys, were working by quite a contradictory theory to that of the street boys' clubs.

At times it has seemed so, and the settlement people and the club people have not always understood each other. But of late the settlement workers have felt the need of the *esprit de corps* of the mass-club and have sometimes opened large playrooms, while the club leaders have come to see the value of work with small groups and have sought to multiply volunteer workers and small classes.

The Young Men's Christian Association has a rapidly increasing and valuable work with boys, which does not, however, reach much into the street boy class. In only four or five instances is work done exclusively with the newsboy element. The street boys' clubs, on the other hand, are weak in the fact that they cannot provide for their members after they become young men, and have hitherto been obliged to turn them out again upon the street. The Fall River Club and the Bunker Hill Club alone have developed a young men's department and building. The Germantown and the Washington clubs are about to do so. There has been a friendly conference held in Massachusetts between leaders of the two forms of work, tending toward making the Y. M. C. A. the graduate school of the street boys' club and arranging for other forms of fellowship. In practical working out the arrangement has its difficulties, as the atmosphere of the Y. M. C. A. is not so democratic as that of the clubs from which the street boys go out.

The boys' club superintendent works harmoniously with the head of the local charity organization society; indeed, in some instances, the two are one. The superintendent is often an authorized probation officer and truant officer, he is also usually the agent of a stamp-saving society. As individuals, the club superintendents, although their calling is one recently evolved and there is no school for their special education and they come from many other kinds of work, are usually men of Christian character and strong executive ability. Although they deal with boys so much in the mass, their personalities often exert a marked and forceful individual influence.

It must be recognized that our un-

natural city life is producing a type of boy, in large numbers, who is homeless in the sense that his home is too dreary for an evening shelter or that he is too restless to remain in it, who is too sensational in his tastes to be reached at present by the evening school, and who is not easily corralled in the Y. M. C. A., the

church or the social settlement. This kind of boy goes to the street boys' club. There he finds shelter, amusement, opportunity, encouragement, and best of all—a friend. No other instrumentality can do just this work, and until social conditions change, these clubs must be supported in every city of fifty thousand people or more.¹

To Country and Cottage

The effect on Institution Children of a change from congregate housing in the city to cottage houses in the country

R. R. Reeder

Superintendent New York Orphan Asylum, Hastings-on-Hudson

IX²

In the last three numbers of this series we discussed incentives of fear, of the appetite and of personal appearance or dress. These form the lower rounds of the ladder upon which we are ascending.

The next motive of upward push is competition. From the standpoint of opportunities for the expression of this motive there is no comparison between the cottage and the congregate plan. The new home is full of it, while in the old home it was conspicuous by its absence. The besetting sin of institutional training is a dead levelism of motive, of effort and of soul. For such stagnation competition is a sovereign remedy.

Almost every feature of housekeeping in the cottages feels the inspiration of this incentive.

If the floors in one cottage are kept cleaner and waxed smoother than those in another, the matrons and children of other cottages are sure to know it, and the cottage that suffers by the comparison bestirs itself to greater effort to attain the higher standard. Many a penny goes for Christmas tree ornaments and much study, patience and effort are expended in trimming the tree and decorating the cottage in order that "our tree" may be the prettiest on the grounds, or at least may compare favorably with those in the other cottages. Children respond as readily to this stimulus as older people and competition may

thus become a most helpful and educative motive in their lives.

Nowhere does this motive show itself to greater advantage than in the care of furniture and clothing. Hundreds of pieces of china are handled every day by the boys and the girls who take care of the cottage dining-rooms and pantries. The breakage would become appalling were it not for pride and the competitive spirit. The cottage that breaks the fewest dishes administers reproof and sets an example to the one of wasteful carelessness. A fine of so many cents for each piece broken failed to furnish adequate motive to save the china from going to smash faster than any institution could afford to replace it. But when a breakage allowance of so many pieces a month for each cottage was fixed with the provision that the excess over this allowance should be replaced with tin ware, cottage pride was touched and competition solved what the money interest alone failed to solve. Although the fines are still retained, yet the dominant motive in sparing the china now is the desire to have as nice table ware as "any other cottage on the grounds." The influence and pressure

²This is the 9th of a series of articles by Mr. Reeder based upon experiences associated with the moving of the New York Orphan Asylum from a barracks type of institution in Manhattan to the present site overlooking the Hudson.

¹Those who wish to learn more of street boys' club work should write to Thomas Chew, Fall River, Mass., and enclose twenty-five cents, for the number of the magazine, *Work With Boys*, containing a list of the American clubs, and then go and visit the nearest ones. A bright new book, entitled *Boyville*, written by John E. Gunckel and published by the Toledo Newsboys' Association at one dollar, tells how one such club was started and conducted. Frank S. Mason, Dexter Row, Charlestown, Mass., will be glad to receive enrollments of members in the new federation and to answer inquiries as to its development.

of the whole cottage is brought to bear upon the careless boys and girls to help them mend their ways and to save the china. The breaking of a half dozen cups and saucers is the concern of all, and "butter fingers" is an epithet that no child likes to hear. On the other hand those who make such records as the following are heroes and heroines in their respective cottages. Joe and Gustav worked in the pantry for a year and broke no dishes; Arthur worked eighteen weeks and broke one dish; Viola served seventeen weeks in the pantry and broke no dishes; Lena B. eighteen weeks and broke one piece; Lena F., Amelia and Frieda twenty weeks each with no breakage, and Ruby, a confirmed dish smasher, as shown in a former record, finally served sixteen weeks and broke but one piece. These children are all in school; they range in age from ten to fourteen. Their pantry and dining-room service is regularly performed three times a day. Such records as the above are read and as heartily applauded in the general assembly hall as are the high standings and honors in scholarship. And why shouldn't they be? Isn't it worth as much to handle carefully and safely, day after day, property entrusted to us, as it is to spell well, to write well or to give smooth oral recitations in arithmetic and geography? The former certainly carries with it a greater sense of responsibility and in that respect at least is more truly educative than much of the work done in our schools.

There is no limit to the application of this incentive. Each year from thirty to forty children compete for the best flower garden, designed, planted and cared for by themselves. One thinks a star pattern will be the winning design, another selects a crescent, a third a double circle, etc. The results of such a competition are difficult to estimate. Among them may be mentioned the following: The forming of a plan involving a whole series of related interests and ideas; its execution by many hours of labor extending through the whole season; information concerning quality of soil, fertilizer, planting, watering and cultivating different kinds of flowers; the esthetic culture, skill and taste involved

in the selection and arrangement of the colors; the pleasure of seeing one's own flowers in button-hole bouquets and in vases on the table; pride in showing the flower bed to visiting friends, etc. The discipline of carrying through such an enterprise is also of a high order. The good natured interest which the competitors take in one another's flower gardens is a by-product of educative worth. The competition each year so far has been so close that nearly every prize has been divided between two competitors.

Another helpful application of the spirit of competition is seen in the awarding of cash prizes for regular academic work in the various school grades. The competition for these prizes is carried through many weeks and the tasks are of such nature as to appeal to the greatest number possible and to demand a patient and constant effort rather than a brilliant burst on some special occasion. By means of a permanent school exhibit into which the best efforts of the children are flowing from week to week, the competitive incentive functions toward standing and honor in scholarship as well as toward the winning of cash prizes. The exhibit room is a room full of product. Its thousands of pieces exhibit the study, skill and patience of the children whose names they bear. An inventory of this material published from time to time on the bulletin board shows the number of pieces to each child's credit. The child that has twenty-five pieces in this exhibit is pretty sure to feel better satisfied with his labors than the one who has but four or five.

The exhibit¹ is a constant stimulus to the child to produce work of such merit as will deserve a place in this room. To do this it must be work that will compare favorably or surpass that of his fellow pupils.

The following challenge read in assembly hall on a recent morning shows another application of this helpful incentive:

¹ Visitors to the orphanage naturally think that the exhibit is maintained for their pleasure and inspection, but if no visitors other than the children ever looked at this exhibit it would still be worth many times the trouble of its maintenance because of the incentive to educative endeavor which it constantly inspires in the child.

NEW YORK ORPHANAGE,
Feb. 20, 1906.

To the pupils of school B:—

We, the pupils of school C, challenge you, the pupils of school B, to a spelling match. The said match to be on words in the fifth year work. The time and place of said match to be decided by school B.

Awaiting your reply, we are

Yours respectfully,

SCHOOL C.

It is needless to say the challenge was accepted and the battle royal, with words for weapons, took place.

Children in all institutions I have ever seen and in most families, suffer from the lack of two important incentives,—the interest and companionship of older people, and adequate motivation. I should estimate that not over fifty per cent of the capacity of the average child, whether in the family or the institution, is realized in any direction—play, work or study—simply for the want of these two factors. In the Rauhe Haus near Hamburg, founded in 1833, no teacher who could not enter into the plays of childhood was considered fit to come in contact with the children.

Scores of our boys and girls have learned to swim in the Hudson since moving to the new home, simply because they see others trying to learn and they want to acquire the art first, if possible; also because some older person interested in their achievement inquires after their success in this direction from time to time, and they want the pleasure of announcing their triumph at as early a date as possible. They take many venturesome plunges and endure many fear-some duckings for the joy that is set before them in this much coveted feat. Was there ever a pleasure equal to swimming for a boy? Our girls enjoy it just as much and almost as many of them can swim, but not so far nor so masterly.

The fourth of July would be a dull day at the orphanage were it not for the competitive interest manifested in out-door sports. From the match game of base ball in the morning, in which Satterlee cottage crossed bats with all the other boys' cottages, through the relay race, the handicap race, the potato race, the three legged race, the sack race, and the tennis tournament the competitive spirit and interest

were dominant. Weeks of practice culminate on this day in the triumph or defeat of the various contestants.

Nowhere does competition function more helpfully than in the manual training and cooking classes. What one boy has done another thinks he can do better, and without saying much about it he lays out his design more carefully, saws to the line with greater precision, pushes his plane more skillfully, and fits joints more accurately because of this incentive.

To make the best bread, the finest rolls, pop-overs that melt in your mouth, croquettes that are both artistic and palatable, salad of which you want a second helping, and coffee, whose odor and taste are irresistible, is the ambition of each little maid in the cooking class. Not one can do all of these, but each can do one or two so well that her reputation is known, and she thus becomes an example and an inspiration to the younger classes coming on, who are eager to compete for honors in this field.

Competition has its bad side—its downward as well as its upward sweep. In this respect it is like almost every other enrichment of the life of the child. But it is an instinctive quality in human nature, is the inspiration of much of the play life of children, and has too much good in it to be left out of the curriculum of child training. Its temptations must be overcome.

The children who made the splendid records in handling china must be heartily congratulated, not envied, by the less fortunate ones. The six or eight prize winners in the flower garden contest must bear their honors humbly—not haughtily. The school that is spelled down next Friday should give "three cheers and a tiger" for the victors. The sharper the competition the harder it is to do this. But so frequently do match games, debates and contests, both individual and collective, occur among these boys and girls that many of them under instruction and guidance have acquired at least a measure of the spirit of true sportsmen and can go down to defeat good naturedly. Those who cannot will have many opportunities to learn the lesson. The two boys who accepted the challenge from two girls for three sets of tennis

a short time ago, and won, were generous with the three pounds of English walnuts awarded the victors, and of course the girls did not go empty handed.

But oh the pleasure of giving as compared with that of receiving the hard-earned meed! This was truly what they played for.

Letters from an Old Public Functionary to His Nephew

NO. 7.

Mr. HIRAM BROWN,
Secretary Board of State Charities,
Cariton, Caritana.

My dear Nephew:

Your letter about the report from the commission on epileptics makes me feel good, as it does everyone who knows what the word "degeneracy" means. We are all glad that there is hope for a village in Caritana for this sorely needy class of the population. About half a dozen leading states, of the class Caritana usually belongs in, have got civilized up to the point of beginning to care properly for this kind of degenerates, though none of them do it completely. Still they have taken the first step, which always costs the most effort, and after a while they will do the work well enough with those they have taken charge of to stop most of the supply for the next generation.

Of course you are doing your shares of talking and lobbying for the bill and are, or ought to be, called on for lots of facts, which you certainly should have on tap from your county visits.

The common man, luckily for us smart fellows, is in the vast majority. He has lots of good qualities, works hard and pays his taxes and behaves pretty decently. But the scientific habit of mind is rather scarce with him, especially in the back townships where school keeps only four months in the year. So, when you talk to the average citizen about the great biological laws of heredity and the sociological value of certain psychological and physiological principles, he looks pretty blank.

One of the things that you and every educated public man has to do is to bring philosophic principles and verbiage down to hard pan in such a way that the man with the hoe, or a self-binder, will not only catch on but believe them.

I guess you have found by this time that most of the legislators are not very much above the ordinary in scientific aptitude. Even some of the leaders are rather given to taking pretty short and shallow views of social affairs, political and other. The result is that something more than philosophic theory has to be given them when you want them to make a new deal for an unfortunate variety of the human race, which has so far been neglected. What you must hand out

to them is a lot of plain principles, backed up by plenty of hard facts. One solid fact will knock out a ton of theory. You must have ready an assortment of concrete instances, especially those that show how neglect breeds misery and how care will ease it.

I have heard people, who think they know, say that the state has no right to be charitable; that it is a corporation and, therefore, essentially without sympathy and that its acts are, or should be, only those that can be justified by the way they promote the prosperity, not of any one suffering class, but of every citizen. That may be straight social economics, for all I know to the contrary, but it is a long way from practical politics and would cut very little ice with the rank and file of the statesmen. Perhaps private interests and sentimental considerations will not influence legislation when the millenium comes, but that will be because we will have quit making laws by that time. If you want to get a thing done here and now for the relief of some suffering class of people, you must show the law makers that they *are* suffering and that your scheme will relieve them. Maybe they have no right to let sympathy influence their votes on an appropriation bill but you may depend on it that it does and will every time.

Now, when you are sure that what you want to get done is for the good of the whole state, as well as for the particular bunch it is aimed at, you can have a clear conscience when you work the sympathetic racket for all it's worth to reinforce scientific theory with. The biggest thing for us about the care of the feeble-minded and epileptic is that when we are talking for it, we can hit at the social economist, the good-hearted sympathetic common-fellow, and the cold-blooded tight-fisted tax payer, all at once.

Of course, your new village when you get it (not *if* you get it, because you *will* get it, if not this session, then next) will cost money to build and run. But it is easy to prove by theory and practical example as well, that damming up this stream, not only of epilepsy and idiocy but insanity and pauperism as well, at one of its chief sources, will save the state and hence the tax payer, many times its cost. You can't believe too firmly nor assert too strongly that no child of a neurotic parent will ever be up to grade

except by an accident, the reverse of that which sometimes makes the child of a normal parent, neurotic. He may not show the same neurosis as his father but if not he will show some other. This is because the trouble is not a *trait* like blue eyes or red hair, which *may* or may not descend from parent to child, but a *constitutional condition* which *must*. You have only to study the etiological record of the school for feeble-minded to make yourself sure on that point. Even if it cost as much to care for and control the epileptic and feeble-minded, especially the women of child bearing age, as the price of their board in a first-class hotel, it would be money in the state's bank to pay for it. But the fact is that they may be all kept decently, with good and efficient control, at only a little more than their present semi-neglect with no control in poor houses and other unfit places costs now (and lots of them can be made to earn their own living), while the saving to the state in the next generation would be enormous.

When you are preaching the earning power of degenerates in segregation, don't forget the difference between self-support and self-control and direction in this proposition. A horse will earn his board and keep if you will give him control and work, but he would starve to death in winter, in some latitudes, if you didn't feed him. It means earning power under proper direction. The ability is there in hundreds of them; but it takes brains, grit and gumption to bring it out.

You want to begin early to make it clear

that nothing but the best service can run the village properly. It will be no place for a worn out preacher, a "has been" politician, an elderly country doctor looking out for a dignified, well paid retirement, nor even a young "M. D.", with an untarnished, new sheepskin, to be superintendent of. It needs a man with a broad mind, varied experience, good education, both that of the schools and that of life. Most of all, it needs a man chuck full of human sympathy and kindness. General executive ability is of twice as much value as highly specialized professional fitness. He must have the soul of the teacher; the man with eyes to see latent powers and possibilities in the crudest human material and the energy, good sense and inventiveness to draw them out and make the latent possibilities into actual power and strength. Luckily it does not need genius, except the genius of common sense, although once in a while that sort of a job does seem to need common sense of the *Nth* power.

When you visit a really successful institution for defectives, the effect on your mind is that the things you see done are *just the sort of things you'd have done yourself if you had only thought of them*. I rather fancy that that's a pretty fair criterion of good work. The successful fellow is, as Voltaire says, "He who knows better than anybody that which everybody knows." The best work of this kind shows for itself and does not have to be explained.

Yours faithfully,

UNCLE HENRY.

Loose Threads in a Skein

Two little Italian girls with shining, clean faces and smoothly tied hair sought a friend of theirs in a settlement one morning at seven-thirty. They insisted that their business was urgent and finally their friend was summoned. They greeted her with the words, "We want to be locked up, Tessa and me."

"Locked up, child?"

"Yes, they is ten of us home and my mamma hasn't any room for us two."

* * *

In *The Trained Nurse and Hospital Review*, W. Fairfax Gordon writes of Easter Sunday with the children of an orthopaedic hospital.

"Mamma has a new hat and dress for me," said Annie, "I wish I could see them; I wish I could go home." Her parents were well-to-do people and she was the only home-sick child in the ward.

"I don't wish I could go home," said Mary. "I couldn't have any lectwisty at home and there wouldn't be any wubber lady."

Gabriele has become a philosopher; his premise is, "The strange ways of Americans, even recently imported Americans, are right. His task is to find some explanation for them. He told this tale to his teacher: "We've just found out that my father has another family in Italy, but we understand how that is. He is there five months every year and he wants that family just as he wants us here. And now I have a mother and a step-mother, too!"

* * *

A doctor sent for one of the settlement nurses in New York, for a case on Chrystie street, diagnosed as typhoid fever. She tells of it as follows: "I went and found apparently a typical case. After I had bathed the patient, made the bed, disinfected, etc., the wife asked me if I could do something to make the application of the ice-bag at his head of greater benefit. He had stiff, thick hair, and reasoning that he would be in bed for at least three weeks and that his comfort was the first consideration, I suggested

cutting the hair. The wife thought it a brilliant idea, and as my scissors had been sharpened the day before the work did not take long.

"The second day after, when I made my early morning call, to my surprise (and chagrin) I beheld my 'typhoid' patient sitting in a chair wearing a barber's towel under his chin and a hopeless expression on his face, and behind him the barber trying to smooth the furrows, not of his brow, but of his head.

"The patient's temperature was normal; the diagnosis mistaken."

* * *

In a recent issue of *Rocky Mountain News* were these verses, purporting to be one of Judge Lindsey's missionary talks in the Denver juvenile court "to stray newsies about the straight and easy way":

STAN' IN WIT DE JUDGE.

JAMES BARTON ADAMS.

Now I want youse to listen, youse newsies,
While I shoot it out straight from de lip;
It's a dead honest hunch

Fur all o' de bunch,
An' I hopes dat you'll collar de tip.
You've got a friend up at de courthouse,
An' I'm givin' you dis little nudge,
Dat you're certain to win
In de life game yer in
If you'll only stan' in wit de judge.

I ust to be tuff as dey make 'em,

Was Jack-on-the-Spot in de swipe,
But now I'm as straight

As de post of a gate,
An' dat ain't no smoke from de pipe.
I'm toein' de mark with de good uns,
An' you bet my feet never'll budge;
An' every ol' day

T'ings is comin' my way,
Because I stan' in wit' de judge.

He's got a heart in him dat's crowdin'

De rest of his works out o' place;
In his soul dere's a light

Fur de kids, dat's so bright
It's shinin' right out t'rough his face.
His dignity? Yes, he has got it,
But not wit' de kids—dat's all fudge;
His dignity hikes

To de woods w'en he strikes
A kid dat stan's in wit' de judge.

You ain't goin' to always be newsies;
You'll outgrow the business, you see,
An' you ought, on de dead,

To be lookin' ahead—
It's all up to you w'at you'll be.
You can hold a place in de percession
Dat any good man 'd begrudge
By a-crossin' yer heart

An' a-makin' a start
From a solid stan'-in wit' de judge.

Now all o' youse strays dat don't know him,
Go up dere an' git in de push,
An' you'll find t'ings 'll come

As dead easy, by gum,
As snatchin' a rag off a bush.
When his arm gits to cinchin' around you
An' he gives you de faderly nudge
You'll feel mighty glad

Dat you chopped on de bad
An' got a stan'-in wit' de judge.

* * *

The *British Journal of Nursing* publishes these bits:

(Nurse in district overhears the conversation of three little boys):

First Boy—"There's the Queen's Nurse."
Second Boy—"Na, its nae, it the leddie doctor."

Third Boy—"Na, na, it's God's wife."

County inspector writes: "There is a Gamp here who takes temperatures with the thermometer in its case 'for fear of smashing the tiny glass. It takes just as well,' she says, and 'it's safer.'"—*Queen's Nurses' Magazine*.

"What does baby think of our shop?" asked a little boy, with pardonable pride. "Baby has not seen your shop yet, dear," I said. "Well, how did she come then? she must have come through the shop," he argued, wholly contemptuous at my ignorance. I was silent, and for once a woman did not have the last word.

"I likes to be clean, but I don't believe in none of your fancy weshin'," said an old woman, whose feet I was just starting to wash, after having with great difficulty persuaded her to allow the upper part of her body to be washed. A. M. D.

Late Books.

- Battles of Labor.* Carroll D. Wright. Geo. W. Jacobs. 1906. \$1.00.
- Boyville; a History of Fifteen Years' Work Among Newsboys.* J. E. Gunkel. Toledo (Ohio) Newsboys' Association, 1905; \$.75.
- History of English Philanthropy.* B. Kirkman Gray, 1905. P. S. King, London; 302 pp.; 7s 6d.
- Immigration and its Effects Upon the U. S.* Prescott F. Hall. H. Holt. 1906. \$1.50.
- Menace of Privilege.* 1905. Henry George. Macmillan. \$1.50.
- Physical Efficiency. A Review of the Deleterious Effects of Town Life Upon the Population of Britain, With Suggestions for Their Arrest.* James Cautle. 1906. P. S. King. 3s. 6d.
- Readings in Descriptive and Historical Sociology.* Franklin H. Giddings. Macmillan. 1906.
- Reformers' Year Book, 1906.* F. W. Pethick Lawrence. Joseph Edwards, London Office, 4 Clement's Inn, W. C.; 1s.
- Sociological Papers.* English Sociological Society, 1905. London Macmillan; 292 pp.; 10s 6d.
- Studies in American Trades Unionism.* By Officers and Students of John Hopkins University. Edited by Prof. J. H. Hollander and Prof. Geo. E. Barnett. Henry Holt & Co. 1906. \$2.75.

Edward T. Devine
Editor
Graham Taylor, Associate
Lee K. Frankel, Associate for
Jewish Charity

"The Commons"
merged November, 1905
'Jewish Charity'
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CHARITIES

and The Commons

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The San Francisco Situation.

A changed tone can be noted in the dispatches from San Francisco during the past week. The first buoyant response to the challenge of disaster has been superseded by the sober second thought which realizes the vastness of the problem before the city. There are still 250,000 homeless, hungry people to be fed, clothed and sheltered and on May 5 only ten days' supply of food was on hand. The supplies that were rushed to the city from all parts of the country when the news of the disaster was first sent out, have ceased, coming spontaneously. There seems to be danger of actual suffering. Under this pressure as well as for other reasons the authorities have decided that all men who are physically able to work, must do so or leave the city. A careful system of checks has been put in force so that the food can be used with economy. The basis of the amount given to each person is the day's ration of the United States army. There seems to be confusion as to the amount of money the finance committee can rely upon. Chairman James D. Phelan reports that he has received less than five millions and that less than three-quarters of a million is available. The daily press however reports that \$20,000,000 has been subscribed. The \$2,500,000, voted by Congress could be used only for supplies and the Secretary of War expended all but \$300,000 of this immediately. This uncertainty in so vital a matter shows how important was the move to central-

ize the collection of the fund as well as to disburse it.

The problem of helping those who ordinarily do not need help is coming to the front. As the various temporary hospitals are closed, the physicians and surgeons who for days gave their services to the sick and wounded, are released to attend to their own personal affairs. But they are without offices, instruments; even without patients. What are they to do? How are they to be helped? In similar plight are the lawyers whose books were burned, or the domestic servants who can not earn a livelihood in their old way, locally, until the homes in which they worked have been rebuilt. For aiding the professional men, by supplying them with books and instruments a fund has already been started by the California representative of the Huntington estate, who subscribed \$30,000. Small loans without security will probably have to be made to enable the small shop keepers to resume business. Up to this time, the right of way has been perforce given to the immediate question of devising means and methods of feeding the hungry, but from now on these more far-reaching problems will engage the committee.

National Jewish Representatives.

At a meeting of the executive committee of the National Conference of Jewish Charities in Philadelphia Sunday, together with representatives of a number of other Jewish societies, the San Fran-

cisco situation was discussed at length. Dr. Lee K. Frankel, manager of the United Hebrew Charities of New York, and associate editor of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, and Rabbi J. L. Magnes of Brooklyn, were commissioned to set out for California at once. It was the sense of the meeting that the situation does not demand the raising of special funds for Jewish residents who have suffered by the catastrophe; their economic necessities will be met by the general relief measures devised to meet the needs of all members of the community. The subscriptions of Jewish contributors to the funds of the National Red Cross have been especially generous.

The mission of Dr. Frankel and Dr. Magnes will be rather to confer with representative Jews of San Francisco upon the future general needs of the Jewish people of California—the prospects for rebuilding their various social institutions, asylums, hospitals and the like, and the resources necessary to re-establish them.

Consider these simple elements in the life of the National Capital. The District of Columbia has a population of approximately 300,000 people. Nearly 90,000 of this number are negroes. This very large negro population necessarily means a much larger percentage of poverty than would otherwise obtain. The negro race is peculiarly susceptible to tuberculosis. The manner in which many of the inhabitants of the alleys in Washington are housed is conducive to the spread of this disease. There is no law requiring the registration of cases of tuberculosis in the District of Columbia, and hence the number of persons suffering from that disease is not known. Last year 904 died from tuberculosis, and it is estimated that there are between 2,500 and 3,000 consumptives in the District of Columbia. However that may be, the most casual consideration of the facts just stated as to the racial division of the population, the amount of poverty and the housing conditions emphasize the need of proper hospital facilities for indigent cases. Not only is such care needed for the many victims, because they are unable to provide suitable treat-

ment at their own expense, but their mode of life is such that, if not treated, they are likely to be prolific sources of infection. It would be difficult to imagine a city of the size of Washington that presents more urgent reason for proper hospital facilities for indigent tuberculosis patients. Yet in the face of this, practically nothing has thus far been done by the public authorities to provide the necessary care. Again, in this is Washington a type of many American cities in contrast to the increasing few that are leading in the war with consumption and progressive action at the national capital should lead to similar advances elsewhere.

The only hospital provision for consumptives is that furnished by four small shacks, or tents, which accommodate a total number of twenty-four patients. These shacks are located on the grounds of the Washington Asylum (an institution consisting of workhouse, almshouse and hospital) and were erected by private benevolence. The city bears the cost of providing maintenance for the patients. Only twenty-four beds for indigent consumptives in a city of over 300,000 population, and these beds in shacks located on the workhouse grounds! Of course, many self-respecting poor persons, in need of hospital treatment, are deterred from accepting such treatment, owing to the fact that the only place where such care is provided is on the prison grounds and in connection with the workhouse administration. Nevertheless, the demand for such treatment is so great, that these shacks, located disadvantageously as they are, have been crowded constantly, and the overflow has had to be received in the general wards of the Washington Asylum Hospital, where the sick poor of the city, suffering from all kinds of diseases, are treated.

For Every 100
Consumptives
One
Hospital Bed!

The congested conditions at the Washington Asylum Hospital are clearly set forth in the following extract from a letter of the superintendent of that institution, addressed to the commissioners of the District of Columbia, on March 30, 1906:

I desire respectfully to bring to your attention the serious situation in the Washington Asylum Hospital, on account of the large number of consumptive patients. The report of the superintendent of nurses sets forth that on March 2, 1906, we had forty-two tuberculous patients out of a total of 139. Twenty-four of these tuberculous patients were in the four tents provided by private beneficence, and the remaining eighteen tuberculous patients were housed in the regular hospital wards with the other sick patients, both medical and surgical. Since the report was made, we have been averaging forty tuberculous patients, a very decided increase over the average of last year. They are all proper cases for care and treatment here. The indications are that there will be a steady increase of this class of indigent patients. No other hospital will receive them and we are in no position to deny admission to legitimate cases. They are, despite every precaution we may take, a menace to other sick patients in the wards. Our contingent appropriation for the year is considerably overdrawn, on account of the unforeseen increase in our population during the year, so that we have no available funds to provide additional tents or shacks, or to provide the necessary food and service required. * * *

The local authorities are awake to the conditions and the necessity for relief, and the board of charities and the commissioners of the District of Columbia have asked for an appropriation of \$150,000 to provide a hospital for indigent tubercular cases. This request has been supported by the Medical Society of the District of Columbia, citizens' organizations and committees, as well as by the press and public generally, and there is this year a much more urgent demand for relief in this direction than ever before. The city owns a tract of over thirty acres, admirably located, and in every way suitable for the erection of such a hospital. The plan is to erect a plain, substantial administration and service building and a ward building, to provide for those advanced cases for whom little in the way of cure or improvement can be expected. Such persons ought not to be exposed to the rigors of outdoor treatment to the same degree as persons who can be greatly benefited thereby. It is very necessary, however, that these very advanced and hopeless cases should be in a proper institution, because they are at present a great danger to the community as foci of infection.

In addition to these two buildings, it is proposed to provide for an indefinite number of tents or shacks for the treatment of the large number of patients whom we can hope to benefit by the open air method. The need is so apparent, and the desires of the community so manifest, that a confident hope of securing the appropriation referred to during the present session seems justified. A sanatorium was established a few months ago for the care and treatment of patients able to pay \$10 a week and upwards. Dr. George M. Sternberg (surgeon general, U. S. A., retired) has charge and is giving his personal service without compensation. The results so far justify the conclusion that the meteorological conditions favor the outdoor treatment of consumptives and there is no reason why the ultimate results should not be as beneficial in the District of Columbia and Maryland as elsewhere.

Education and Social Needs.

Education as related to social needs was the subject of the ninth annual conference of the Eastern Public Education Association which met in New York last month. Thirty-four organizations were represented—all non-professional bodies from the educational standpoint, composed of residents of various cities represented, who have taken an active interest in their departments of education. Some, like the public education associations of Philadelphia, New York, Providence, R. I.; Richmond, Va.; Washington, D. C., or independent bodies; others are strong committees of general organizations such as the Twentieth Century Club of Boston, the Women's Civic Federation of Elizabeth, the Arundell Club of Baltimore and the Civic Club of Philadelphia. The organizations are based on the principle that an education in public opinion is an absolute necessity if the public schools are to do their best work. If local educational officials are more progressive than a community, the task of the organization is obvious—it must do all it can to interpret the work of these officials and to help them gain the confidence of the public who must pay the taxes. If the educational officials

are less progressive than a community, the responsibility is equally urgent—the organization must do all it can to prod the officials.

One of the definite values of the conference lies in affording opportunities for an examination of the school equipment of the city where held. Thus, there were visits to the Girls' Technical High School, the High School of Commerce, the Ethical Culture School, the Children's School Farm of DeWitt Clinton Park, where Mrs. Parsons gave an address, and to a number of the public schools on the East Side where special classes for backward or defective children, for foreigners and the like, were visited.

The range of subjects discussed under the general title may be indicated by reference to a few of the speakers—Dr. Samuel P. Dutton, Supt. of Teachers' College School, City Supt. of Schools William H. Maxwell, who spoke on education as related to social needs; Miss Julia Richman on the opportunities of the East Side; Miss Catherine S. Leverich on the public school girl's athletic league; Miss Margaret Livingston Chalker on a child's education in relation to trades; Mrs. Mary Schenck Woolman of the Manhattan Trade School, leading in the discussion; Dr. Felix Adler spoke of the teaching of ethics in the schools, and Peter W. Dykema of festivals as a vitalizing force in school work, and Franklin C. Lewis on education for self mastery. Bernard Cronson discussed self-government in schools; Mrs. Robert Abbe, the origin and development of the City History Club of which she is president; and Bernard S. Deutsch gave descriptions of two of the typical classes—Liberty Class at the College Settlement, and the Roosevelt Class at the Educational Alliance.

Eight Years of the People's Institute. The People's Institute, New York, held the closing meeting of its eighth season at Cooper Union, April 29, Bird S. Coler, Dr. John P. Peters, Dr. Thomas R. Slicer and John DeWitt Warner speaking on various phases of the outlook for civic and social improvement.

An interesting feature of the evening

was the presence of seventy-five children, members of the junior clubs, who marched into the hall singing patriotic songs.

The courses of the institute this year at Cooper Union have been very largely attended, the total attendance for the six months' season being about 125,000; it is estimated that 15,000 different persons, of whom eighty-five per cent. are working men, attended at some time or other during the year; over 3,000 persons are registered as regular attendants.

This year, more than 20,000 seats for productions of Shakespearean and other high-class dramas have been sold to school children and others at reduced prices, through the institute. The institute co-operates with the People's Symphony Concert Association in providing good music at low prices. Two first voters' courses have been offered, one on the upper East Side and one in a hall near Cooper Union, and each of these has resulted in the formation of a civic club, designed to do educative work for its own members and improve local conditions. The People's Institute Club A, with 350 members of both sexes, does a varied social and educational work and is self-supporting. A club of working girls, and clubs of children studying city history and simple civics, are also new with the year. Worked out fully, this series of clubs would constitute a graded school of citizenship, taking the children from thirteen or fourteen years into the junior clubs, bringing them later into civic clubs for young men and young women, and finally making it possible for them to carry on their education as adults and to assist practically, in large civic movements, in the central gatherings of the institute. Although these gatherings are now housed at the Cooper Union, the institute greatly desires a building of its own, where all its different activities could be centered. A final development of the year is a movement to organize the members of the institute's audiences into a league with a small membership fee, pledged to the promotion, as a non-partisan body, of clean, efficient government in the general interest, and ultimately to extend the league, through branch centers, to all sections of the city.

Four Leaders in Philanthropy

who have died since the last
year's Conference

Andrew Elmore

of Wisconsin

F. B. Sanborn

In accepting the invitation to write a brief memorial of my ancient friend and fellow-laborer in the National Conference of Charities for more than thirty years, it will be of his administrative and philanthropic activity that I shall speak, although that was but a department of his very long and varied life. He died in his ninety-second year, and seventy-five of those years were more or less given to the public service in some form or other; while yet he by no means neglected the material basis of such service. He was a merchant so early and so successful that he was able, before middle life, to command his time, and help lay the foundations of the state of Wisconsin, which was his adopted home for nearly seventy years. Born on the banks of the Hudson, in May, 1814, he came into political life in youth, before the founders of the republic had all gone to rest, and when the second and third generations of statesmen were on the busy stage. Patriotism with his contemporaries was not so much a vaunt as an anxious and profound sentiment; the dangers of the nation had by no means been surmounted, and its chief crisis of nationality was still far before it when he left his native state and took up his abode in the western wilderness among the Indians and pioneers. He shared the risks and profits of the Indian trade, and held for years the confidence of the red men, who found, as all did, that his word was sacred and his spirit just. This and his native shrewdness and geniality brought him early into public life, while

his moderate political ambition kept him in positions where he could do good, and provide for the future of the community, rather than in those uneasy seats of power to which the capable and the incapable so generally aspire. There was no office in Wisconsin that he could not have filled with success and honor; but he chose rather to be the quiet worker in the committee-room and the persuasive counselor in private, than to fill the public eye in conspicuous places.

How early he undertook the tasks of public charity I never heard him say; but when I first met him at New York in May, 1874, on his sixtieth birthday, he was already at the head of the Wisconsin public charities, and had begun their reconstruction and reformation. As in all new states, the burdens were not yet heavy, and there was good will in the people to bear them,—but great lack of experience and much danger of taking the bad path instead of the good one. Everything was mixed and many things were confused; but it was the special talent of Mr. Elmore to bring order out of confusion, and to classify where separation was needful. And he not only saw what was best to be done, but had the enviable gift of persuasion, to a degree seldom equalled among persons of my acquaintance. When he chose suavity in argument, it was a charming pleasure to be convinced by him; when the opposition was powerful, he had ways of making the situation itself compel the assent of the unwilling. And as he sought nothing for himself except the opportunity to serve and benefit, the things to which he persuaded men did not return to plague and thwart him, as very justly may happen to the selfish persuader.

Wisconsin owes him much for wise direction from its earliest territorial organization until it had become a dominant state in the northwest; but his greatest service was in organizing the care of the insane upon a wise and equitable system, as between the state and the counties. It was his own device, and it was so automatic that, once established, it goes on by its own justice and utility. The central authority has the controlling voice, as it should, in the classification and care of the insane, but the local authority is not set aside for all but the convenient function of paying the large and increasing costs,—as is too often the case in other states. The local authorities of Wisconsin also have important duties of building and management, and the costs are so shared that both parties to the bargain get the best of it,—a consummation much to be wished, but seldom, in other matters, to be reached.

The private virtues of Mr. Elmore were the foundation of his public virtues. He was genial, kindly, whole-souled, excellent of judgment, and as modest as a man of his abounding wisdom ought to be. That is, he was so well fitted to lead, that it would have been false modesty always to decline leadership; but he made his manifest superiority as easy to others as human frailty will allow. He retained his excellent faculties to the last and was exerting them for others when death summoned him.

Phillip C. Garrett

of Pennsylvania

Isabel C. Barrows

That for almost a quarter of a century Mr. Garrett was a manufacturer of textile fabrics is quite forgotten by those whose acquaintance with him extended only over the last twenty-five years of his life, which was devoted entirely to public welfare instead of to business affairs. Born in Philadelphia in 1834, graduating from Haverford at the age of seventeen, his entire life was spent in his native state and his rare wisdom and broad charity were devoted to the service of that state.

As chairman of the famous "committee of one hundred," he helped to purge the city of Philadelphia of many evils in the early eighties. As president of the State Board of Public Charities and as president of the State Lunacy Commission, he extended his usefulness to all parts of Pennsylvania. But no state and no race could confine his interests. For many years he was on the board of Indian commissioners, a work that carried him over Indian reservations and made him one of the first band that afterwards grew into the Mohonk Indian conference, which for so many years has helped to guide the fortunes of the red people. The other conferences supported by the princely hospitality of A. K. Smiley, that for the negro and for the promotion of arbitration in place of war, owed much of their efficiency to the sagacity and prudence of Mr. Garrett, who was always a welcome member of these gatherings.

Mr. Garrett likewise gave his support to the conference of superintendents of schools for the feeble minded and when possible attended their meetings, but to no work of a public character did he give more faithful allegiance than to the National Conference of Charities and Correction, which seemed to him to unite in one organization the efforts for the betterment of humanity in which he was so deeply interested.

When the National Conference of Charities and Correction met for the first time in the city of Washington, in 1885, Mr. Garrett was the president and his courtesy, grace and fairness as a presiding officer are recalled with pleasure by those who were there. His opening address on that occasion might well be read at the coming meeting in Philadelphia without the change of a word, so farsighted was it as to the needs of the country and so slowly has the country supplied those needs. There is hardly a cause advocated to-day in the way of charity and reform which he did not plead for then. It is interesting to see, from his own words, how he looked upon the subjects coming under the ken of this conference. Referring to the two provinces covered by the name, he says:

One is exceedingly broad and comprehensive, and is properly construed to comprise those fundamental questions which relate to anticipation and prevention, as well as treatment of crime, pauperism and defect. These fundamentals are in reality more important than the cure of evils that have once taken root. The other class relates solely to the *correction of character become bad*, and covers penal and reformatory matters only.

The subjects which Mr. Garrett suggested should be studied and presented by the conference have been always part of the program as the years have gone on, but they have been practically adopted in few states. They embrace such suggestions as efforts to abate the evils of intemperance; to lessen lynchings, the introduction of kindergartens and kinderkitchens; compulsory education, immigration; hospitals and nursing; putting out of sight the idea of revenge in punitive measures and giving prominence to restoration; not making confinement within prison walls "a necessary sequence of crime, if reformation of the offender can be accomplished in another way * * and it can be effected in other ways and much better effected in the treatment of offending childhood and youth"; graded and classified reformatories for all first convictions; the probation system for first offenders; the abolishing of county jails, or reducing them in number, reforming them completely and making them detention places only; the cottage system for juvenile reformatories and insane asylums; classification in prisons and penitentiaries; cumulative sentences for hardened criminals and retaining incorrigibles behind bars permanently; labor for all,—the youth, the prisoner, the insane, the pauper, the tramp, the vagrant,—labor not as a curse, but whose value as a reforming agent, physically, mentally and morally, is not to be overestimated; schools for the imbecile, the epileptic and the feeble minded; the organization of charity in the country as well as the city.

In all these suggestions the gentle spirit of Mr. Garrett appears. He never scolds, he never lays down rules for people to obey. For instance, he says, "The present system fails to reach the evil of vagrancy, because as soon as the

city grows too hot for the tramp he still has the green pastures and still waters of the country for his home, and goes forth to dwell with the lilies of the field, where no charity organization can make him afraid. Some thorough scheme needs to be devised by which it will be as impossible for these parasites on society to live and flourish in mountain and meadow as in the crowded metropolis,"—which is as true to-day as when it was written twenty-one years ago.

The recent excellent index of papers published by the conference shows at a glance how important a part the word of Mr. Garrett played for many years, but no printed page can reveal the absolute crystalline purity of his character, the strict sense of justice, the overflowing hospitality to ideas, the generous support of every worthy cause, by hand and heart and mind, the genial love of home and friends, the genuine modesty, which were best appreciated by those who knew and loved the man. It is with a sense of deep loss that his old friends of the conference will at length meet in his native city, to which he long wished to welcome them. They will miss the warm grasp of his hand and the pleasure of looking into those clear seeing eyes which discerned so much truth, which are now closed forever. Yet his memory will be kept green not only in their hearts, but by that very printed page which conserves so much, though it reveals so little, of the real man.

Judge Kinne

of Iowa

Isaac A. Loos

The cause of practical philanthropy has lost a strong and able support in the death of Judge Lavega G. Kinne of Iowa. Judge Kinne at the time of his death, March 16 last, was senior member of the Board of Control of State Penal and Charitable Institutions. He was one of the three original members of the board appointed in 1898, Ex-Governor Larrabee and John Cownie having been the other two members. Under the chairmanship of Governor Larrabee the board organized and did its work during the first several years. When the latter re-

tired Gifford S. Robinson was appointed to succeed him, Robinson having been formerly supreme justice of Iowa. This board has from its beginning and through its career been a strong one, and Judge Kinne has been through all this time one of its conspicuous members. By training Judge Kinne was a lawyer and jurist, by temperament and natural gifts he was a public servant of the highest order. Sympathetic, of large views, courageous and resourceful, he was much more than a routine administrator. Everything he touched felt the influence of his large personality. He took a remarkable personal interest in the financial management, in the official staff, and in the inmates of every institution under his charge. His generous humanity and profound insight qualified him exceptionally for dealing with the tasks of his position. He had a scientific interest in the development of the administration of penal and charitable institutions, and labored not only for the present adjustment of these interests but devoted his large abilities to the development of plans which would tell in the future.

Judge Kinne has had the principal charge of the editing and publication of the *Bulletin of State Institutions* issued quarterly by the board of control, in which the reports and proceedings of the quarterly conference of superintendents with the board of control at Des Moines are printed, together with occasional papers and discussions contributed by experts on their special subjects. The last work of note by Judge Kinne was the investigation of tuberculosis, inaugurated largely through his efforts several years ago and bearing fruit in a state-wide movement within the past year.

Before his appointment as a member of the State Board of Control, Judge Kinne was on the supreme bench of Iowa and lecturer in law in the State University of Iowa. The author of many papers and reports, he is best known to the legal profession through his text on *Pleading and Practice*, a work that relates specially to judicial procedure in Iowa. He was sixty years old at the time of his death.

The law which organized the board provides for the minority representation.

Judge Kinne having been a democrat he was succeeded by a democrat, John T. Hamilton of Cedar Rapids, at one time representative in congress from the fifth district of Iowa. Mr. Hamilton has large business interests, and some surprise has been expressed that he should have been willing to sacrifice them to accept a place on the board. The explanation of this is that membership on the board has been made honorable and so is capable of commanding strong men.

Josephine Shaw Lowell of New York

In the December magazine number of this magazine was published a review of the services of Josephine Shaw Lowell in the cause of philanthropy and social advance, so that it will be unnecessary here to go into the particular contributions which she made to the sessions of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. In pursuance of a resolution offered at the memorial meeting for Mrs. Lowell in New York in November, the following committee was appointed to plan a permanent memorial:

Seth Low	Thomas M. Mulry
Herbert Adams	Mrs. Frederick Nathan
Felix Adler	J. K. Paulding
Otto T. Bannard	George Foster Peabody
Joseph Barondess	Right Rev. Henry C. Potter, D. D.
Nicholas Murray Butler	Mrs. Joseph M. Price
B. Ogden Chisolm	J. Hampden Robb
R. Fulton Cutting	Augustus St. Gaudens
Rev. W. T. Elsing	Mrs. William H. Schief-felin
R. W. Gilder	Jacob H. Schiff
Edward C. Henderson	Carl Schurz
J. J. Higginson	Miss Louisa L. Schuyler
Rev. J. O. S. Huntington	James Speyer
Rev. William R. Huntington, D. D.	William R. Stewart
Miss Annie B. Jennings	J. G. Phelps Stokes
Mrs. Frederick S. Lee	Miss Lillian D. Wald
George B. McClellan	Miss Elizabeth S. Williams

It is appropriate to add these verses to those we have already printed in tribute to Mrs. Lowell:

The Service-Tree (To Josephine Shaw Lowell)

John Finley
(*The Century*, May, 1906)

There's an old Icelandic rune,
Chanted to a mournful tune,
Of the service-tree, that grows
O'er the sepulchres of those
Who for others' sins have died,—
Others' hatred, greed, or pride,—
Living monuments that stand,
Planted of no human hand.

So from her fresh-flowered grave—
Hers who all her being gave
Other lives to beautify,
Other ways to purify—
There shall spring a spirit-tree,
In her loving memory,
Till its top shall reach the skies,
Telling of her sacrifice.

In Memoriam

The New York Evening Post, April 14, 1906.
As now and then a star breaks through the
gloom,

With glow so strong, so tender, and serene,
Dispelling, one by one the brooding clouds—
Till midnight shade melts in the glow of
morn—

So, now and then a soul serene and strong
Shines downward through the clouds of hu-
man pain,
And through the dark of human need and
wrong,
Till, 'neath its patient toil and radiant
calm—

Evil shrinks back abashed, and good is
crowned.

A star like this is for no land or clime;
Each cloud alike its radiance must share,
And when its light is lost, the whole earth
mourns.

A soul like hers to the wide world belongs,
Its light, though sometimes hid awhile or
quenched,

Flames ever at the heart of human woes;
And, kept alive by those who knew and loved,
Becomes consuming fire to every wrong
That holds humanity in suffering's thrall.

Shine on, O Star! in life's oft-clouded heaven!
Burn on, O Soul of flame! in life's sore needs.
Pierce e'en our sadness! Let thy light be
given

To those who glad would follow where it
leads,

Who fain would change their love and grief
to deeds.

MARY LOWE DICKINSON.

The Story of Ward L'

Clara Irvin

Last year we told of our early attempts to find suitable and interesting occupation for the crippled, paralyzed men of Ward L in the City Home for the Aged and Infirm, on Blackwell's Island, New York. The physical condition of these men is such that they have not been employed in any of the institution's workshops or schemes of labor. The majority of them have given up hope of any kind of occupation: they pass their days in dreary inactivity, seated beside their beds, and few observers would believe that they are capable of accomplishing anything. But during the past year we have received new proofs to support our belief that these hopeless men may be encouraged and helped to try to work again. Our experiment has spread beyond Ward L and it is a former inmate of Ward M who tells his story.

I came to Ward M in 1903, nearly helpless with locomotor ataxia, and almost beside myself with grief after many troubles. One day Miss Fowler was sent to persuade me to try my hand at basket-weaving, and after some urging I started a basket for her, just to please her, although I did not expect ever to finish it. As I worked with the raffia, and the basket grew, I became more interested,

and my brain seemed clearer every night. My hands and arms trembled less and less as I used them and I can now control them so much that I can hone razors again. I used to be a barber.

In 1905 I was able to leave the Home on Blackwell's Island, and am now boarding in New York. I earn about \$4.00 a month honing razors and making baskets, and my wife helps by her wages to pay my board. One of our children is living with her uncle and the other is at a children's home. We hope some day to have our own home with them again.

S. has knitted twenty-two shawls and thirty-seven pairs of wristlets within the year. He used his earnings to buy delicacies for a son in the Tuberculosis Infirmary of the Metropolitan Hospital, and later paid for this son's burial beside his mother. More recently he has paid weekly premiums on the life insurance policy of another son. He is trying to get a pension, with which, supplemented by his earnings, he may be able to support himself, and no longer depend on the city for maintenance.

We are trying constantly to find inmates like these who by new ideas and new channels for work may be re-

¹Those interested in this subject can find the first account of the work in CHARITIES of March 4, 1905.

deemed from hopeless dependence to a self-supporting life.

In another case a daughter has been helped to find sufficient suitable work to pay for the support of her aged parents, who had been dependent on the city for some months during her severe illness. They are now all living happily together in New York.

Some inmates have worked to buy artificial limbs. Others have purchased through the teacher, bacon, eggs, coffee, milk, cream, cheese, cake, chicken, canned peas, salts, pills, liniments, salves, a watch, socks, ties, collars, phonograph records, knives and various tools, and have paid for every article on delivery. Many have used their earnings to repay debts of gratitude.

The workers continue to pay, as formerly, for all their materials, and receive all the profits of sales when made directly by this committee; in some instances, however, gladly paying a selling commission of 10 per cent to societies holding sales, as an inducement for the exhibition of their work. In other instances, notably in the case of the sales, very considerable in quantity, made by the Sunshine Society and its individual members, no commission was charged. Almost \$900 was paid to the workers during the twelve months ending September 30, 1905.

As they have acquired some skill and deftness by making chains and belts, they can now be persuaded and taught more easily to do more difficult and substantial work, and the men have produced this winter raffia baskets of various patterns, raffia hats, Smyrna rugs which they design themselves, illuminated texts and initialed dinner cards, and carved wooden articles, while fine sewing and cushion lace-making have been tried with some success among the crippled women.

Such have been the encouragements to continue the efforts of the special committee on employment for the infirm (New York city visiting committee of the State Charities Aid Association) which was started among the epileptic women of the city hospital in 1893 under the direction of Miss Rosalie Butler. During the year just past, the work of the committee has broadened still further, having been extended in February, 1905, to the

New York City Home for the Aged and Infirm, Brooklyn Division, and more recently to the New York City Farm Colony on Staten Island.

The number of inmates working with the assistance of the committee has greatly increased, and a beginning has been made in the employment of the blind men on Blackwell's Island. This last task is a difficult one, as they have for so long been accustomed to do nothing, and so general is their habit of dependence. But we hope to educate a few of them to enter the shops for blind workers which the Association for Promoting the Interests of the Blind has established in New York.

We are trying to obtain positions for some of the more promising inmates through the Charity Organization Society's newly established Special Employment Bureau for the Handicapped, which aims to secure work for those who through physical weakness or other drawbacks are unable to compete with normal applicants, while still capable of a certain amount of work.

This spring we are hoping to employ some of the partly able-bodied men, who through inefficiency, lack of skill, or lack of incentive to work, are idling away their time living on the city's bounty. The committee has received many interesting suggestions for new industries. We are assured that it is practicable, and will be profitable, to raise chickens, geese, violets, and hothouse vegetables. Since some weird experiments of ours have been developed, by faithful persistence, into successful features of the work, we are ready to undertake cheerfully a small farm annex to Ward L, when the right time and the necessary funds shall have arrived. Judging by the enthusiasm with which the proposal was received to furnish flower seeds if the inmates would promise to tend and cultivate flowerbeds, the Staten Island cottages should be a mass of bloom this summer, and this work will of course be done merely for the pleasure of working and obtaining good results, without any expectation of pay. Ward L should also have its flower gardens, towards whose care many of the cripples could do their part.

From School to Work in Chicago

A Study of the Central Office that Grants Labor Certificates

Anna E. Nicholes
The Consumers' League of Illinois

[This is one of a series of articles taking up some of the social problems of the public schools. March 24 was published Miss Hood's description of the house-wifery schools in London; April 7, Dr. Cronin's discussion of the medical supervision of school children, and the articles by Miss Morten and Miss Rogers on the school nurse in England and America; May 5, Mr. Spargo's discussion of how foreign municipalities feed their school children. Other articles are to follow.]

It is somewhat discouraging to those interested in limiting the work of children in the city of Chicago to learn that within the two and a half years since the Illinois child labor law was amended there were issued from the Central Office by the public school representative, 30,643 certificates to children to go to work.

In spite of the fact that in Illinois no child can work more than eight hours, that no child can work after seven o'clock at night, 30,643 children between the ages of fourteen and sixteen years left the public schools to go to work. The Central Office is the pulse where one can actually feel the life of the throng of children entering the industries; it is the final official point that touches the children as they leave home and school, with the full permission and sanction of the state to work in factories, stores and offices. On file in this Central Office is kept the record of every child between the restricted ages of fourteen to sixteen years who leaves our public or parochial schools to go to work; his age, nationality, the grade from which he leaves school and a description including height and weight.

Previous to the amendment of the child labor law of Illinois, in 1903, the only requirement to secure a labor certificate for a child was the oath of the parent as to the age of the child—and as a matter of fact children eight and nine years of age were found working with certificates filed with their employers and duly sworn to, showing the children to be fourteen years old.

The amended law that went into effect July 1, 1903, requires the oath of the parent as to the child's age, but also

some other paper to back it up, either the record of the age as kept in school or a birth or baptismal certificate.

The establishment of the Central Office is an interesting story of co-operation on the part of the factory inspector's office, the public and the parochial schools. It was a provision of the original child labor bill, but this portion was weakened in the committee room in Springfield by an amendment which made it possible for the principal of each school to issue certificates.

Uniformity was thus lost in the enforcement of the law as well as the possibility of accumulating valuable data and experience. Previous to the establishment of this Central Office, the Consumers' League of Illinois—in order to test the enforcement of the child labor law—visited more than fifty public and parochial schools in the industrial districts. With the data thus secured conferences were held with the public school authorities and with Archbishop Quigley representing the parochial schools, which resulted in the establishment of a Central Office with two representatives—one for the public schools and one for the Catholic parochial schools, the Lutheran parochial schools not as yet co-operating.

To this office the children between the ages of fourteen and sixteen years who wish to go to work must come with their parents, bringing their school record which they have received from the principal of the public school or head of the parochial school. The parent here makes affidavit as to the age of the child. The school record indicates his age on record in school, and his ability to read and write. The final certificate is then issued

to the child, of which two duplicates are made—one is left on file at the Central Office, the other sent to the state factory inspector's office where it is placed on file for reference by the deputy factory inspectors.

In the two and a half years since the last amendment of the child labor law in Illinois, interesting data is furnished by both the public and parochial schools' representatives, bringing out many points of interest as to the terms upon which Chicago is issuing permission to its children to enter its industrial life. In all the tables presented, the arrangement gives the largest number of children at the top of the tables, and so on in decreasing numbers, the smallest being given at the bottom.

One of the most interesting tables is that giving the nationalities of the children going to work.

Of the total number of children receiving certificates July 1, 1903, to January 1, 1906, 2½ years in the public schools, there were,

Of American parentage	986	or 3.2 per cent.
Foreign born.	2,841	9 " "
American born of foreign parentage.	26,816	87 " "
	<u>30,643</u>	

The overwhelming number of children born in the United States, 91 per cent, is a surprise and places the responsibility for education and good conditions at our own door. The plea that it is the foreigners who bring down our educational requirement is thus invalidated. Fearing a high test which their early environment has not made it possible for them to meet might work a hardship upon the children from the old countries, a low educational standard has been set. It is for children born in America (of foreign parentage largely, to be sure), brought up in the proximity of our public schools that we are setting conditions, as is clearly established by the table given above.

Analyzed as to nationality of parentage, these working children fall into the following groups:

AMERICAN BORN.

<i>Nationality of Parents.</i>	<i>Nationality of Parents.</i>
1—German 8,408	9—Italian 800
2—English 3,761	10—Dutch 620
3—Bohemian .. 3,608	11—Norwegian.. 598
4—Irish 2,744	12—Danish 269
5—Swedish 2,304	13—French 184
6—Russian 1,977	14—Greek 28
7—Polish 1,025	15—Spanish 2
8—American ... 986	16—Turk 1
	<u>Total..... 27,802</u>

Those of American parentage stand eighth in the list of sixteen, while German percentage leads in sending 8,408 children to work. The Italians stand ninth.

The number of children born in foreign countries, is distributed as follows:

FOREIGN BORN.

<i>Country.</i>	<i>Number.</i>	<i>Country.</i>	<i>Number.</i>
1—Russia 807		9—Norway 63	
2—Germany 553		10—Ireland 48	
3—Italy 345		11—Denmark ... 46	
4—Bohemia 323		12—Scotland ... 43	
5—England 200		13—France 29	
6—Sweden 161		14—Greece 12	
7—Poland 110		15—Turkey 2	
8—Holland 98		16—Arabia 1	
		<u>2,841</u>	

It is interesting to notice that the largest number of foreign born children are Russian, 807 children, which seems to indicate that the Russians are coming to Chicago in large numbers. The next country in line is Germany which sent us 553 working children; while 16 countries furnish a varying number of children, even Turkey contributing two and Arabia, one.

Adding the children American born, but of foreign parentage, to those born in foreign countries, gives us the following table of percentages:

PARENTAGE.

<i>Country.</i>	<i>Number.</i>	<i>Percentage.</i>
1—German	8,961	26.
2—English	3,961	12.9
3—Bohemian	3,931	12.8
4—Irish	2,792	9.1
5—Russian	2,784	9.08
6—Swedish	2,465	8.
7—Polish	1,135	3.6
8—Italian	1,145	3.7
9—Holland (Dutch)....	718	2.3
10—Norwegian	661	2.1
11—Danish	315	1.2
12—French	213	.7
13—Greek	40	.1

German parents furnish a much larger per cent of children to the ranks of workers from our public schools than any other foreigners, the English coming next with 12.9 per cent., while we have only 3.2 per cent. of American parentage. Eight countries stand higher in the table of percentages of children of foreign parentage than Americans who constitute only 3.2 per cent., Russians furnishing 9.08 per cent. nearly three times as many.

Of the 30,643 children securing certificates during the two and one-half years, the boys numbered 67 per cent. or 20,724; the girls number 32.4 per cent., or 9,919. Nearly one-third of all the children going to work during the period are girls.

Perhaps the question of paramount importance, among the many that naturally arise concerning these working children, is their educational equipment—the amount of education the child has actually received as shown by the grade which he leaves to go to work.

The law of Illinois requires the simplest sort of educational test. New York¹ requires for all children under sixteen years of age a school record certifying that the child has received instruction in reading, spelling, writing, English grammar and geography and is familiar with the fundamental operation of arithmetic up to and including fractions. Twenty-one states have higher educational requirements than Illinois, which simply requires that a child must be able to read and write simple sentences in any language, or show a certificate that he is attending night school.

There can be no point of greater concern to the state, not only from the standpoint of citizenship but also of its industrial life, than the education of these children so early entering the ranks of industry. The very fact that only 3.6 per cent. of children are of American parentage and that they come from homes often of limited opportunity since they are forced so prematurely into the working world, should cause the state to

interpose the safeguard of a high educational test.

The following table giving the grades from which the children leave school to go to work, in our public schools, are of significance. They are arranged with the largest number of children at the top of the table:

CERTIFICATES.

<i>Grade.</i>	<i>Number.</i>	<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>
8th	6,601	4,530	2,071
6th	6,250	4,264	1,987
5th	6,102	4,197	1,904
7th	5,737	3,920	1,817
4th	2,680	1,819	861
9th	999	683	316
3rd	937	630	307
2nd	215	159	56
10th	192	148	44
11th	29	24	5
1st	14	11	3
12th	1	1	0
Evening School	183	126	57

This table shows much to be desired educationally. The largest number leaving school to go to work are from the eighth grade—a fact which is in a measure gratifying and is largely due to better provisions of the amended child labor law, and the compulsory education law, passed at the same time. These two laws keep the children in school until actually fourteen years of age. The effect of the laws in increasing these upper grades is shown also by a comparison of the public school enrollment before and after the laws went into effect. Even with these safe-guards, the children who attend the eighth grade are only one-fifth of the whole number leaving to go to work, while 40 per cent. or 9,948 of the total number whose grades are given are found in or below the fifth grade.

When one considers how low the requirement of the first five grades is, how soon in these early years education is forgotten if not followed up by higher attainment, the conclusion that practically 40 per cent. of the children of Chicago go to work sanctioned by the state with little or no education, is not unfair.

A table comparing by percentages boys and girls in proportion to total number of each going to work from the different grades shows great uniformity.

[See Hand Book 1906, Child Labor Legislation—National Consumers' League.]

Grade.	No. of of Boys.	Per cent. total No. of Boys.	Girls.	Per cent. total No. of Girls.
8th	4530	20	2071	21
6th	4264	20	1987	20
5th	4197	20	1905	20.3
7th	3920	14	1851	18
4th	1819	8	861	8
9th	683	3	316	3
3rd	630	3	307	3
2nd	159	7	56	5

A slightly larger number of girls reach the eighth grade than boys. It is interesting to note that 4 per cent. more girls leave the seventh grade than boys, showing a greater tendency to let the boy go on and finish the eighth if he has attained the seventh grade.

The figures and tables presented above have been taken from the public schools for a period of two and a half years, one year of which shows the records kept before the establishment of the Central Office.

The record from the parochial schools begins with the inception of the Central Office, July 1, 1904, and furnishes very complete data for one year—to July 1, 1905.

A comparison can be made of the records of the parochial school with the records of the public schools for the same year—July 1, 1904 to July 1, 1905:

Total number of public school certificates issued	11,542
Total number of parochial school certificates issued.....	3,167
Total for one year.....	14,709
Per cent. parochial school certificates	21

An interesting point comes out in comparing for one year the public and parochial schools in the matter of sex which shows that a larger percentage of girls in the parochial schools secure certificates.

PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS			
Boys.	Girls.	Per cent. total No. of Boys.	Per cent. total No. Girls.
1689	1498	53	47
PUBLIC SCHOOLS			
Boys.	Girls.	Per cent. total No. of Boys.	Per cent. total No. Girls.
7983	3559	78	22

COMPARISON OF NATIONALITIES IN PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS.

American Born.	Foreign Born.
1—Polish 831	1—Poland 150
2—Irish 681	2—Germany 102
3—German 673	3—Bohemia..... 77
4—Bohemian ...309	4—Austria..... 54
5—French 68	5—Italy..... 53
6—Italian 41	6—Russia..... 43
7—American ... 21	7—Canada..... 12
8—Lithuanian... 6	8—Ireland..... 11
9—Russian 4	9—England..... 8
10—Dutch 2	10—Belgium..... 6
11—Norwegian... 2	11—Hungary..... 3
12—Canadian ... 2	12—France..... 2
13—Swedish 2	13—Lithuania... 2
	14—Bavaria..... 1
	15—Brazil..... 1
	16—Norway..... 1

2,641

526

Poland leads in both tables having a total of 981, or 31 per cent. of the entire number. The relative position of Ireland in the two tables is of interest, standing second in the first table and eighth in the second. 681 children or 22 per cent were born of Irish parentage in America. While in the other table we find only eleven children born in Ireland seeking "working papers."

The total number of children American born of foreign parentage from the parochial schools is 2,620 or 81.7 per cent.; of children born in foreign countries 526 or 16 per cent.; American born of American parentage, 21 or .7 per cent.

Here, as in the public schools, one sees that the problem is with the American born children whose education the state has power to control through its compulsory education and child labor laws. A compulsory education law requiring the children to remain in school until 16 years old unless they complete a required amount of work, possibly through the fifth grade and over the fourteenth birthday, would assure to us a better educated citizenship.

The grades from which the children leave the parochial schools to go to work, are as follows:

	Boys.	Girls.
5th	323	372
6th	301	304
7th	265	260
4th	263	167
8th	182	157
3rd	124	58
2nd	65	9
1st	8	High school, 8
High school,	46	

The highest number of boys leave from the fifth grade and of the girls from the fourth; while of the total number, 3,167, 1,683—or 53 per cent.—leave below or from the fifth grade. Of the total number of the certificates issued, 18 per cent. of the boys were in the sixth grade, and twenty per cent. of the girls were in the fifth grade.

Growth and Schooling. A comparison of the ages, weights and heights of children securing age and school certificates from the parochial attendant during the month of June, 1905, follows:

72.7 per cent. of the boys were 14 years and under 15 years.

27.3 per cent. of the boys were 15 years and under 16 years.

85 per cent. of the girls were 14 years and under 15 years.

15 per cent. of the girls were 15 years and under 16 years.

Average height of boys, 14 yrs., 4 ft. and 8 in.

" " " 15 yrs., 5 ft. and 7 in.

" " of girls, 14 yrs., 4 ft. and 9 in.

" " " 15 yrs., 5 ft. and 1 in.

" weight of boys, 14 yrs., 89 6/10 lbs.

" " " 15 yrs., 93 8/10 lbs.

" of girls, 14 yrs., 93 8/10 lbs.

" " " 15 yrs., 108 lbs.

The table shows the boys of 15 years receiving permission to work average nearly a foot taller and about four pounds heavier than the boys of fourteen; and the girls of fifteen years average nearly one-half a foot taller and about 15 pounds heavier than the girls whose ages average 14 years. There is an almost human appeal in these few added inches and pounds of the older children. At this formative period of child life this added year of freedom from the industrial grindmill, spent at home and in school under stimulating influence with liberty to grow and develop is a year of grace.

Would it be too much for a state in-

terested in growing strong men and women, to exact that all children be kept from factory work until they have nearly or quite attained their normal growth?

Fifty-nine children applied to the parochial school attendant in this one year who could not meet the simple requirement of the law, not being able to read or write simple sentences in any language, and so to each the certificate was refused. Many of these returned after the lapse of two or three months joyfully claiming that they could read and write, and were found upon examination able to pass the test. No matter with how much anger they had left the Central Office because the certificate granting liberty to work had been denied them, they invariably expressed their gratitude to the attendant that this education (?) had been required of them.

But how pitifully small a requirement that can be compassed in three months' time! And how easily lost!

This study of working children in Chicago emphasizes from every side the necessity of a higher educational requirement in our compulsory school law before children are allowed to leave school and join the ranks of wage earners. A mere beginning is made in the present child labor law, a mere naming of the word education, as it were. Illinois has fallen in the scale of literacy of children between ten and fourteen years of age from the fifth place in the list of states to the thirteenth, in comparing the census of 1890 with that of 1900.

If Illinois would regain her lost ground and rise higher in the point of literacy, the children leaving the public and parochial schools must have enough education to remember some portion of it, and the ranks of child workers must not be filled with school children—40 per cent. of whom in the public schools and 53 per cent. in the parochial schools, are in or under the fifth grade.

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No. 7

The National Conference of Charities and Correction.

Social workers in Minnesota have a big year's work before them. For Minneapolis was chosen as the conference city of 1907 and must match the standards set by the great gathering last week and this in Philadelphia—the 33rd National Conference of Charities and Correction. The opening night saw the Academy of Music packed to the doors and many of the general sessions have crowded the large assembly room in Horticultural Hall. The fact that the president, and chairmen of three sections—together with other workers well known in the conference—had been kept away by the San Francisco disaster did not seriously hamper the carrying out of plans and served to emphasize the closeness with which the workers in this unique body are concerned with whatever vitally and dynamically affects social conditions. It is the clearing house of a distinctly practical philanthropy. And as was said by Robert W. de Forest, who acted as president *pro tem.*, this present summons but added a new dignity and consecration to their calling.

Amos W. Butler of Indianapolis, was elected president for the 34th National Conference, and Hugh F. Fox of Plainfield, N. J., George Vaux, Jr., of Philadelphia, and L. A. Rosing, St. Paul, vice-presidents in the order named. Alexander Johnson and Robert J. Hoguet were re-elected general secretary and treasurer in recognition of the admirable work done the past year. In the person of Mr. Butler, the president-elect is not

only representative of the state boards, and of the middle west in which the conference of 1907 will be held, but has for many years been one of the most effective members of the national body.

The committee chairmen for the next Conference are as follows:

Standing Committee: Reports from States.

Alexander Johnson, New York.

State Supervision of Charitable and Correctional Agencies.

Robert W. Heberd, New York.

Needy Families: Their Homes and Neighborhoods.

A. W. Gutridge, St. Paul, Minn.

Promotion of Health in Home, School and Factory.

W. H. Allen, New York.

The Insane and Epileptic.

Dr. Owen Copp, Boston, Mass.

Defectives.

Dr. J. M. Murdock, Polk, Pa.

Statistics.

John Koren, Boston, Mass.

Children.

George L. Sehon, Louisville, Ky.

Prison and Police Administration.

Joseph Scott, Elmira, New York.

This telegram from President Devine was read at the opening meeting:

While there is great desolation in San Francisco, there are favorable conditions. Among them are, the absence of chronic pauperism, the presence of extraordinary individual initiative, the co-operation of the army, the concentration of relief funds, the sanity and courage of mayor and citizens, and the aid of the newspaper press.

There will be constructive work here, however appalling the magnitude of the task of immediate relief.

Sincere regrets at absence, and gratitude to the local and conference committees! Their splendid work will see it through to a great success.

On motion of Dr. Brackett of Boston, a response, sending greeting and encouragement was voted.

Men in public life—for in the part taken by these, also, this year's conference has been notable — Ex-President Grover Cleveland, Governor Johnson of Minnesota, Governor Hanley of Indiana, Mayor Weaver and others spoke. Indeed, the work of such governmental agencies as the state boards of charities and correction, health, and charity departments, juvenile courts and public institutions was repeatedly to the fore, strengthening, rather than conflicting with the broadened spirit with which the later conferences have addressed themselves to their task. Brief and more general reviews of the national conference—together with the National Conference of Jewish Charities and the educational conference of workers with children will be published in later issues. But for definite up-to-date reports of the sessions, anticipating by several months the volume of the *Proceedings*, readers are referred to six daily editions of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS published May 9-16 at conference headquarters under the management of Arthur P. Kellogg. This stroke of enterprising journalism was made possible by the co-operation of the local and national executive committees. The series of six issues will be mailed, post-paid, for thirty-five cents.

Sing Sing
and
Napanoch.

Despite the failure of the bills introduced by the State Probation Commission, reviewed on another page, this session of the New York legislature has not been without signal gains in the field of prison reform.

After years of agitation, action has come which will mean the battering down of the walls of the old prison at Sing Sing. Insanitary, inadequate, punishing the criminal with a toll of ill-health more serious than the penalties imposed by the court, the maintenance of this institution has discounted the progressive work done by New York state through such agencies as Elmira.

As originally drafted, the bill provided for an appropriation to undertake the

erection of a new institution. As passed, it provides for the appointment of a commission by the governor to select a site. The appropriation is limited to \$75,000,—enough to insure the initial expenditures of an undertaking which will mark the administration of Governor Higgins.

This bill was recommended by the State Prison Improvement Commission appointed by him a year ago to investigate the needs of the prison system of the state. A second measure recommended by the commission provided that the Eastern Reformatory at Napanoch should come under the management of the board of managers of Elmira Reformatory. This institution, erected to give relief to the older reformatory, has never accomplished the purpose of its founders. It was placed under the state superintendent of prisons, and has been lacking in reformatory and educational factors. It has been neither a prison nor reformatory. For the thorough and persistent work which brought success to these two measures the New York Prison Association has been largely responsible.

San Francisco
Refugees
in Chicago.

Chicago's ready hand in forwarding provisions and money to San Francisco was no less effectively stretched forth to welcome the train loads of refugees who began pouring into the city within a few days after the great disaster. The work of the Chicago Relief and Aid Society in arranging on short notice for their reception, care while in the city, and transportation to destinations beyond, was a noteworthy example of promptness in securing co-operation to meet an emergency.

A telegram announcing the first train load of over 300 was received at four o'clock in the afternoon, the train to arrive early the following morning. Before bed time came that night everything was in readiness. Volunteers were secured. The Young Men's Christian Association social director, some of the students at the Y. M. C. A. Secretarial Training School, the superintendent of the Municipal Lodging House and his assistant, and other young men from

the social settlements placed themselves at the disposal of Superintendent Sherman C. Kingsley of the Relief and Aid. Six hundred lunches were given by two prominent restaurant proprietors. Arrangements were made with the railway station restaurant keepers to serve hot dinners upon the arrival of the trains. Meal tickets were printed. Co-operation was secured from the Visiting Nurse Association, the Red Cross Nurses, and St. Luke's Training School for Nurses, by which a number of nurses were to be on hand at each station. The railway men representing lines running east from Chicago were called upon to furnish transportation for any refugees who wished to go beyond Chicago.

Although the trains were hours late the service of the Relief and Aid Society and the agencies from which it secured co-operation would have been just as adequate and effective if they had arrived upon the dot of schedule time.

Refugees Met Part Way. The plan of procedure was to send men to meet the trains anywhere from 50 to 200 miles west of the city. The names of the refugees were obtained, the destination of each was learned, and the baggage attended to. Everything was prepared so that immediately upon the arrival of the trains, the railway men were provided with lists from which they could make out transportation to be brought at once to the refugees at the stations.

Nearby hotels were generous with their rooms and parlors, and one of the prominent hotel men of the city who has had an extensive experience in handling large crowds gave much personal attention to the various arrangements. An undertaker provided an ambulance to be constantly on call. Many individuals gave clothing and money and placed their private homes at the disposal of the refugees. One lady took a family of eight into her own house.

The way in which the refugees helped themselves was inspiring. Many shared their last dollar with entire strangers. The utmost consideration was paid to the

women and children, and in every car they were given the seats which had been turned facing each other to afford better sleeping accommodations, while the men stretched themselves out in the aisles. The railway trainmen, too, gave liberally out of their pockets to help those in their care.

Of approximately 3,000 who have come to Chicago, about 2,000 have been transported beyond—1,000 going to New York, and 1,000 have remained in the city. The vast majority of refugees have been most worthy, reputable, appreciative and in real need; and there has been very little desire to secure more than they actually needed.

The Bureau of Charities, whose superintendent, Ernest P. Bicknell, was sent to San Francisco in company with Dr. Devine to serve as an intermediary between Chicago and the sufferers, has rendered effective aid in permitting the use of its general office as a headquarters for the committee on information and conference of the general relief movement, and the use of its clerical force and its district offices as substations for the receipt of wearing apparel.

State Charities Aid Association, New York.

The thirty-third annual report of the State Charities Aid Association is issued this week and shows an increase in all departments of work. The association had under the oversight of its various branches and committees at the end of the fiscal year 1220 children who had been placed in families with or without payment for board, or with their mothers in situations. An additional agency for children has been started during the year in Rockland county, where at the end of the first six months of work the agency had reduced the number of dependent children from 75 to 51. The placing-out agency provided permanent free homes in carefully selected families for 100 destitute children, making a total of 530 placed out in families since the beginning of the work in 1898.

An interesting account is given of legislation affecting charitable interests. The association proposed four bills, all of which became laws. These were:

1. Re-establishing boards of managers for the state hospitals for the insane.
2. Authorizing the appointment of a commission to investigate the operations of the probation system.
3. Providing for the transfer of inmates from one state charitable institution to another.
4. Amending the charter of New York city in relation to cumulative sentences in commitments for public intoxication and disorderly conduct, and requiring the use of the Bertillon system in the workhouse.

A considerable number of other bills in which the association was interested became laws, and practically all the bills disapproved by the association failed of passage. The results of the session of 1905 are regarded as extremely satisfactory, so far as the charitable interests of the state were concerned.

The report of the committee on state charitable institutions notes many improvements made during the past year. The New York State Training School for Girls, established in the buildings formerly occupied by the House of Refuge for Women at Hudson, is receiving considerable numbers of young girls under sixteen and has more than 200 under training. The New York State Agricultural and Industrial School, which is to replace the Rochester State Industrial School, is being made ready on the new site in the country, and it is thought that the new school on the cottage plan, with the facilities for agricultural training furnished by the large farm, will be a great improvement over the old school on the military and congregate plan. The New York State Hospital for the treatment of incipient pulmonary tuberculosis, at Raybrook, in the Adirondacks, is reported to have developed very successfully, especially in the extensive use of tents for the accommodation of patients. The report makes an interesting and valuable suggestion for the further development of this hospital as follows:

It seems unfortunate to limit the tent colony, which can be opened for two-thirds of the year, to the number of patients who can be accommodated in the present building in winter. It would seem to be a very good idea to have this hospital an exception from the general rule, and instead of maintaining the same population throughout the year, to expand into a large summer institution and contract into a smaller winter institution.

The average stay of patients is less than six months, and it does not seem impracticable for the hospital to plan to receive large numbers in the spring and discharge them in the fall. The possibilities of expansion in the tent colony plan are almost indefinite, and the expense of accommodating patients in tents is extremely small. If the expense of their maintenance could be provided, this institution might be conducted on a much larger scale without any great expenditure for buildings.

The report of the committee on hospitals states that the past year has been a notable one in the increased provision authorized for the care of consumptives. After several years' effort, in face of many obstacles, the most serious of which was the law enacted in 1903 requiring the consent of both the town board and the county board of supervisors, the Department of Health has secured a large site near Otisville, in Orange county, on which will be established a modern sanatorium for the treatment of incipient and early cases of pulmonary tuberculosis from the city of New York. The Department of Public Charities has also caused to be prepared during the past summer, plans for a modern hospital building for consumptives, with a capacity of 800, to be erected on property adjoining that of the New York City Farm Colony on Staten Island. The Hospital for Consumptives, opened by the Charities Department on Blackwell's Island in 1902, although its capacity has been enlarged from time to time, is wholly inadequate to provide for the large number of consumptives in various stages of the disease who seek the shelter of the city hospitals.

The association and its various committees have expended during the past year over \$29,000, of which about \$19,000 was for the general work, about \$2,500 for the New York city visiting committee, about \$3,000 for the sub-committee on providing situations for mothers with babies, about \$2,600 for the joint committee on the care of motherless infants, and the remainder for various smaller special funds.

Joseph H. Choate is president of the association, and Homer Folks is secretary.

**Industrial
and Technical
Education.**

The Massachusetts legislature has before it a measure to promote industrial and technical education, which is of interest and importance to the country at large.

A year ago Governor Douglas appointed a commission with Carroll D. Wright as chairman to study the industrial conditions of the state. In consequence this commission held numerous hearings in the larger centers, gaining the opinions and advice of employers, educators, and employees as to the industrial needs of the state. Through a special investigation it has reached out into home, factory, shop, and store, disclosing many of the actual conditions under which children work and their lack of opportunity without industrial training.

The results both of the hearings and of the investigation are summarized in the report and recommendations of the commission, while returns from the study of the relations of children to the industries are set forth by Dr. Susan M. Kingsbury, who conducted the investigation. The report presents facts which have never been brought together. It carries with it the obligation for serious consideration by the thinking public and legislature, which is due a survey of the home conditions, school preparation, and industrial relations of 5,459 children of the commonwealth representing 3,157 families and 55 industries of the state.

The commission concludes that industrial efficiency obtained in the schools is low, and that the years from 14 to 16 which are spent in the industrial world are worse than wasted. But it also discovers that 75 per cent of parents are financially able to keep their children in school, and that they would do so, if the schools offered more practical training for industrial pursuits. Consequently the commission has submitted urgent recommendations in the form of a bill, which has been reported to the legislature from the educational committee.

**Five Year
Commission
Proposed.**

The bill provides for the appointment of an unpaid industrial commission of five to serve for five years, whose duty it

shall be to "extend the investigation of methods of industrial training and of local needs" and to "advise and aid in the introduction of industrial education in the independent schools." The bill further provides that the commission may "initiate and superintend the establishment and maintenance of industrial schools for boys and girls in various centers of the state, with the co-operation and consent of the municipality," and "shall make a report annually to the legislature relative to the condition and progress" of the schools and "the appropriations necessary for their maintenance." Certain provision is made for a state subsidy to municipalities which appropriate money for establishing and maintaining industrial schools or industrial courses.

The legislative hearings have been well attended by enthusiastic supporters from every section of the state. The people are beginning to realize the truth of the statement of the commission that Massachusetts furnishes no instruction at public expense in the principles of industrial training, while in comparison with the opportunities in some other states for public or private education of such a character it is far behind.

It is to be hoped that the legislature will enable the work already begun to be continued. In doing this Massachusetts will take the lead in a field which is attracting the earnest consideration of both the industrial and the educational world.

**For the
Adult Blind
of New York.**

The New York Association for Promoting the Interests of the Blind, in which general interest was aroused through the recent meeting at the Waldorf-Astoria addressed by Joseph H. Choate and Mark Twain, has been duly incorporated under the laws of the state. There are said to be over 6,000 blind persons in New York state. More than three-fourths of them became blind after school age when the state does not undertake to instruct them. Here lies the work of the association. One of the first steps was the opening of a shop for men at 147 East 42nd street, New York, where chairs are re-caned and house and factory

brooms made and delivered. For those unable to attend shop classes, instruction is provided in the homes. The association has inaugurated a postal card registration system by which, through the co-operation of clinics and hospitals, it comes in touch with patients treated for eye troubles and sends agents to aid in preventing unnecessary blindness. It already has in its census over 1,200 detailed cases of the blind in Manhattan and the Bronx, and from these it has learned important facts concerning the possibilities of their employment—such facts as warranted the opening of the shop. The press report that funds sufficient to maintain this undertaking were raised at the Waldorf-Astoria meeting was in error, and, it is to be regretted, has diverted possible subscriptions of which there is real need.

**Chicago
City Club at
Work.**

If spasms are an insufficient way of going at the political side of municipal reform, they are equally inadequate as a means of improving the various departments of city administration. The occasional investigation or "exposure" may furnish healthy excitement for the reformer and his city, may send a few rascals to jail, and may prove a great benefit to the community. But its effectiveness and value may be greatly enhanced if it is only a part of general and unremittent watchfulness by citizens over the affairs of their city. In fact its need may be obviated by just such a continuity of civic interest, which is fair enough to recognize meritorious service upon the part of good city officials as well as to uncover the misdoings or inefficiency of others.

This is the spirit in which the City Club of Chicago has entered upon a comprehensive scheme of work through committees on the various branches of administrative activity. As an editorial in a leading Chicago daily said, the work will be that of the "knocker and the booster." Approval will go hand in hand with criticism, and square dealing—toward the city, its officials, and its people, will be the aim in view.

An indication of the scope of the club's

plan will be seen in the affairs with which the twenty-one committees will concern themselves, covering revenues, expenditures and accounting, transportation, streets and alleys, harbors and wharves, drainage and sewerage, telephones, education, fire, police, and water service, buildings, public health, elections, civil service, parks, smoke abatement, industrial conditions, charitable and penal institutions, and municipal art. Each committee has five members, and the care with which they were selected gives promise of progressive results.

None of the committees have power to commit the club upon any question of public policy, but there is no doubt that they will render effective service in helping to bring to bear its growing and city wide influence. Each committee is to make on the first of every April an annual report in writing upon the matters within its jurisdiction, and shall make such other reports as may be required from time to time by the board of directors.

While most of the committees have devoted their first meetings to mapping out the scope of enquiries and work, some have already had opportunity to render effective service. The committees on health and on industrial conditions, for instance, combined to co-operate with the Municipal Museum and organized labor to the end that trade unionists might be encouraged to attend the Tuberculosis Exhibition recently shown at the rooms of the museum, and to join the movement against consumption.

The City Club of Chicago in the scarcely three years of its existence has proven many times over its value to the community, through its illuminating Saturday afternoon discussions on municipal affairs, and through a careful investigation made of the police force of the city and a study of the municipal revenues. Its present enlarged plans afford interesting comparison with the programs of such bodies as the City Club of New York, the Massachusetts Civic League, the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce and the new lines of work undertaken by the Citizens' Union in New York.

The Situation as to Probation in New York

Homer Folks

The bills recommended by the New York State Probation Commission in their amended form passed the Assembly on Monday evening, April 30, in face of much opposition, by a vote of eighty-four to thirty-seven. The Assembly bills were transmitted to the Senate and referred to the judiciary committee, objection being made to their advancement out of the usual order by Senator Grady, the minority leader. Nine of the thirteen members of the Senate judiciary committee signed a favorable report on the bills. On account of the "hold-up" of the Senate for the greater part of the final week of the session by the mortgage tax bill, the order of business in which reports of committees could be received was not again reached in the Senate. The report on the probation bills could not be received except by unanimous consent, and this was refused on every occasion by Senator Grady. The bills, therefore, failed to become law, though they had passed the Assembly and received the approval of a large majority of the Senate judiciary committee, and would undoubtedly have passed the Senate if they could have been brought before that body during the closing week of the session.

The bills were opposed throughout by several powerful influences,—the city magistrates in New York city, the justices of the courts of special sessions, the police probation officers and their friends, the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children and similar societies throughout the state. While the failure of the proposed legislation is greatly to be regretted, it leaves a considerable moral responsibility upon those who have successfully opposed the passage of the bills. It is within the power of the city magistrates, justices of the courts of special sessions and corresponding officials throughout the state, to correct many of the shortcomings set forth in the report of the probation commission. During the session the opponents

of the measure have not questioned (except in one unimportant instance, and then not successfully), the accuracy of the report of the probation commission. Neither have they made alternative, constructive suggestions, contenting themselves with pointing out the objections from their point of view to the proposed legislation, and urging consideration of the whole matter for another year before the enactment of comprehensive legislation upon the subject.

It is not unreasonable, therefore, to expect those who are now charged with the administration of the probation system to devise and carry into effect such measures as will correct many of the shortcomings brought out in the testimony taken by the commission. For instance,—if the city magistrates desire to continue the employment of policemen as probation officers, it would seem to be incumbent upon the magistrates to give them some real probation work to do, and to hold them responsible for the proper performance of such work. Since the magistrates will have no municipal commission to aid them in the oversight of their numerous probation officers, it is properly incumbent upon them to properly organize the work of such probation officers, and to see to it that when an offender is placed on probation it really means something. It should not be possible, for instance, next winter, for any commission to find that all of the women (with one exception), placed on probation in two of the courts during a period of five months, for loitering and kindred offences, are frequenting Raines law hotels and leading openly immoral lives.

It would seem to be incumbent upon the judges of the juvenile court in Brooklyn to find well equipped volunteer probation officers to fill the vacancies existing at the time the probation commission made its examination of that work.

It would seem that the justices of the special sessions holding the children's court in Manhattan might become reasonably familiar with the probation (parole) work carried on by the officers of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, and not fall into the error, as one of them did, of describing as in present effect a system of opera-

tion which had been discontinued more than a year previously.

It would seem that the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children might definitely determine that it does, or does not, wish to do probation work. At present its chief executive officer holds an appointment as chief probation officer in the children's court, notwithstanding the fact that the president and counsel stated in their communication to the legislature that the society is not doing, and does not wish to do, any probation work whatever.

It would seem that we might reasonably expect Judge Murphy of the juvenile court of Buffalo, who is confident that his volunteer probation officers meet the existing need, to exercise such supervision over his probation officers, and such division of work between them, that none of them would say, a year hence, (as one of them testified before the Commission), that he had had some 150 children under his probationary care; that he had never visited the homes of any of them, and had never made but one report to the court.

It ought not to be possible to find, a year hence, probation work carried on in Utica without any probation officers. These are only a very few of the opportunities before the opponents of recent legislation.

Meanwhile, it may be that the legislation proposed this winter can be improved by further consideration. No pride of opinion should stand in the way of the fullest re-consideration of all the existing circumstances and methods, and the preparation of such legislation for introduction in the legislature of 1907 as will place probation work in this state on a satisfactory basis.

Notes of the Week

Dispensary for Consumptives.—A free dispensary for the treatment of consumptives has been established in the mill district of Kensington, Philadelphia. No medicine will be given to the patients, but preventive measures will be started, and milk, eggs and light diets will be furnished free to those too poor to pay. After a thorough examination of the patients' condition, the treatment will be

given at the home. Two nurses and the members of the staff will visit the sick and direct the treatment.

Following are the members of the board of managers: The Rev. Charles L. Fry, president; Charles Bay, secretary; the Rev. August Fischer, treasurer; Dr. William G. Eisenhardt, physician in charge. The staff consists of Dr. G. Ashton Bardsley, Dr. Charles Schaubel and Dr. Allen G. Ellis, the pathologist.

Exhibit of Children's Aid Society.—An exhibition of the handicraft work of the Children's Aid Society of New York was held in the United Charities Building on April 27-28. The work displayed was confined almost exclusively to different features of the manual training in which the children attending the industrial schools receive instruction. Among the exhibits were weaving, embossed leather, pyrography, basketry, book-binding, chair-caning, cobbling, embroidery and dress making. The Children's Aid Society supports thirteen schools on the East Side.

Newark Charities Endorsement Committee.—A permanent charities endorsement committee has been established in Newark, N. J., in order to avoid fraudulent soliciting for philanthropic work in that city. At a recent meeting of the board of directors of the Bureau of Associated Charities the following were announced as members of the new committee: James S. Higbie, Benjamin Atha, Arthur W. McDougal, Herbert P. Gleason, Louis Plaut, Frederick Barstow, Edward Maher and John Stobaueus.

Racine's Associated Charities.—The Associated Charities of Racine, Wis., has organized with the following officers: President, W. A. Walker; vice-president, C. C. Gittings; secretary, E. L. Talbert; treasurer, Mrs. F. J. Hope. The executive board is composed of Revs. John Davies, D. Ellis Evans, A. C. Grier, Mr. Kaneen, R. K. Manaton; Joseph Cooper, H. C. Olsen, W. F. Hilker, Mrs. E. V. Laughton, Mrs. John H. Roberts and Judge Smieding.

Tuberculosis Prevention in Syracuse.—The Associated Charities of Syracuse, N. Y., has appointed a tuberculosis committee to co-operate with the free dispensary in treating consumptives at their homes. It is planned to provide tents when necessary for patients who should sleep out of doors. The committee is composed of Dr. John L. Haffron, Charles W. Andrews, Dennis McCarthy, Dr. A. C. Mercer, Dr. B. W. Sherwood and Giles H. Stillwell.

The educational campaign against the disease is being advanced in several of the trades unions of the city. Already discussions have been held in the painters', meat cutters' and cigarmakers' unions, and plans are under way for further educational work among the working people.

The American Social Science Association

The annual conference of the American Social Science Association was held in the United Charities Building, New York, May 2-4. Although not called as an "immigration conference," three of the five sessions were given over to discussions of that question in its different phases.

In the introductory address, the president of the association, John Graham Brooks, argued for the overcoming of what he termed the "primary evil of our own ignorance," in dealing with the immigration problem—an ignorance which is, he believes, one of the main obstacles to the world's civilizing. Stubborn and unyielding as this race prejudice appears, Mr. Brooks declares that wherever the immigrants have been fairly dealt with in this country, their standards of living have rapidly adjusted themselves to their surroundings.

"In our general attitude on the subject," he continued, "we should recognize that the people on this small globe are to travel with increasing freedom. The old 'know nothing' cry of 'America for Americans' and 'Canada for Canadians' is not only seen to be unwise and impracticable, but it is becoming ridiculous. From the point of view of race education this human or world side of the problem should have not only increasing attention, but it should have the utmost practical weight consistent with safeguarding interests within national bounds."

Granting that there were evils connected with the present immigration laws, Lyman Abbott said that immigration had proved and would prove beneficial to us. Its evils he said could be properly overcome and the remedy was not at the port of entry but at the port of the ballot box.

Countess Cora Di Brazza-Savorgnan, recently arrived in New York from northern Italy, discussed the immigration question from the Italian point of view. She thought that an inter-national understanding on the immigration question would result in much good to the people of every country, especially to the United States. Through night schools

and by encouraging hand work in the homes, the countess has inaugurated an educational system in northern Italy to raise the standards of the working classes. In continuing a discussion of the question at a later session of the conference, she said that in those portions of southern Italy from which the United States drew its immigrants, the opportunities for the education and training of the working classes are very limited and these limited opportunities she continued, result in many cases in undesirable immigrants. To help Americanize the peasant before he leaves his home, the countess hopes on her return to Italy to be able to open both night and day schools in some of the southern provinces.

Robert Watchorn, immigrant commissioner at the port of New York, maintained that there never was such a desirable class of immigrants coming to this country as at present. This he thought is largely due to that section of the law which provides a fine of \$100 against a steamship company for transporting a person suffering from contagious or loathsome diseases. 50,000 intending immigrants have had their passage money refunded by the companies since this law went into effect. He believed that the law should be extended in scope to provide a fine for bringing insane, epileptic or criminal immigrants.

Thursday's session was opened with an address by Ex-Commissioner William Williams. Recognizing the benefits accruing from good immigration, he said that he believed that at least 25 per cent of the immigrants now coming are of no particular benefit and the mere fact that they find work does not prove that they are desirable. He enumerated what he thought to be the two chief sources of trouble. (1) The fact that about half of the immigrants are assisted in some way to come to this country. He would exclude all assisted immigrants excepting such as come to very close relatives who have established themselves here and are shown to be responsible. (2) The fact that efforts are con-

stantly being made in violation of law, to stimulate immigration. The law upon this point should be made more effective and heavy penalties inflicted for its violation. Mr. Williams would further exclude all immigrants who are feeble minded or of low vitality if dependent upon physical effort for their livelihood.

With a better class of trained workers at the head of the various state immigration departments, Raymond L. Grifis, president of the Southern Immigration Society, argued that the work of proper distribution would be greatly facilitated. "The demand in the south for immigration is strong and the machinery that exists is being rapidly perfected and it is no prophecy to say that the old methodical fellows will soon be squeezed out by young, energetic, well informed immigration men. This will be necessary, for much depends on the state immigration departments.

"There are many reasons why it is difficult to distribute immigrants. One is because many people believe America to be a land where the poor are supplied with food and where money can be acquired without work. Their ideas on communistic government are also wide of the mark and while the south to-day offers more and greater opportunities in climate, price of land and industrial activities than any other section, few immigrants are going into that territory, notwithstanding the fact that the demand for laborers of all classes at good wages is high."

L. J. Ellis, eastern passenger agent of the Norfolk and Western Railway Company spoke on the relation between railroads and immigrants. "Railroad men have no regular immigration propaganda," he said. "They encourage immigration by low rates, not for present revenue but for future business. The efforts of the companies that have endeavored to induce immigration, have been largely nullified by European governments." Mr. Ellis favored a more general removal of immigration restriction. He said that never was help more needed in railroad work than at present and to meet the demand there was need for encouragement rather than restric-

tion. He advocated the removal of Chinese restriction laws and the repeal of the contract labor law, providing the price set for labor was not less than a required standard.

Dr. P. H. Bryce, chief medical officer of the Canadian Department of Immigration said that Canada wanted immigrants, but like the United States "we are growing particular." For twenty years, beginning with the railroad extension toward the west in 1886, Canada has been inviting immigrants to settle on the prairies of the west. Ten years ago the Minister of the Interior inaugurated the present immigration policy. Officers of the department accompany the immigrants on the trains, care for them in sickness and protect them from fraud. When they reach their destination they are met by officials, advised as to their work and helped in securing homes. At Winnipeg houses have been erected for the temporary accommodation of those who intend to go further west.

In explaining the work of the Industrial Removal Office of New York in sending Jewish immigrants to various parts of the United States, its president, Cyrus L. Sulzberger, said that with the close of the fiscal year of 1905 the total number of persons sent away since the establishment of the office in 1900, was 22,591. According to the records on file, the breadwinners of over 20,000 of this number are now engaged in their various occupations. When the office was opened the method of procedure was to find a community that wanted a particular man. This plan did not prove practical and instead, receiving committees were organized in the more important communities to find employment for the immigrants. In some cases an employment agent has been appointed whose sole duty is to find work for the persons sent. In this way men leave New York without a definite place of employment but only with a general reference to the kind of work they are capable of performing. Upon their arrival the employment agent takes them in charge.

Prescott T. Hall maintained that the United States has a unique opportunity to improve its race stock by immigration

restriction. "In every other branch of life," he said, "we are trying to improve our standards. At present, we have an artificial selection, by steamship companies which, however, does not exclude a great number of undesirables." Mr. Hall contended that our foreign born population furnishes more than twice the normal proportion of inmates of penal, insane and charitable institutions and the alien population nearly ten times its normal proportion. The remedy, he said, must be found in legislation.

Thursday evening's session was in charge of the department of jurisprudence. Frederic R. Coudert spoke on the development of laws relating to supervision and regulation, and John Brooks Leavitt on the contingent fee.

Educational work in corrective and reformatory institutions was the general topic for Friday morning. Charles D. Hilles, superintendent of the New York Juvenile Asylum, held that our first duty towards the delinquent boy is to better his environment. If minor offenses are permitted the reformatory must finally step in. Other factors that often held the boy down, he said, were imperfect nutrition, neglected physical condition and heredity. While heredity no doubt asserts itself in the child's life, Mr. Hilles maintained that environment plays a more important part. Influences are rarely negative and with the stress of the city streets it is remarkable that more juvenile delinquency does not result.

Dr. Albert C. Hill, superintendent of education in the state prisons of New York, told of the work in the recently organized prison schools. The first school was established in September, 1905, and the second in February, 1906. About 1,300 men are now being instructed. The lecture method is little used, most of the instruction being individual. English, reading and writing are considered most important. As a rule, Mr. Hill said that men are eager to attend and the results have been most satisfactory.

A. E. Upham, director of the Elmira Reformatory Schools, explained the educational methods of that institution. Since 1876, when Superintendent Brock-

way took charge, there has been a steady growth in the educational system. Not only has crime decreased in those communities from which the reformatory draws its inmates but Mr. Upham maintained that the reflex education on the public mind has exerted an important influence. He read several letters from former prisoners now following the trades learned while at the reformatory.

The closing session of the conference on Friday evening was devoted to a discussion of the education of immigrants. Paul Ableson of the Educational Alliance, New York, said that the great problem is to educate the adult immigrant. With the child the great difficulty is that assimilation is often too rapid—with the adult it is too slow. A large part of the work of the Educational Alliance is to Americanize the adult immigrant. Large reading rooms containing newspapers and periodicals in English and in the immigrants' own language are supplied; lectures are given on American history and American institutions; evening schools laying special stress on the English language are conducted during the summer months and mothers' meetings, cooking and millinery classes are held for the women and girls. In addition to this direct help, the alliance participates in the communal affairs of the immigrant and encourages the idea of self help.

Gustave Straubenmuller, associate superintendent of schools, New York, told of the work the public schools were doing for the immigrants. He said that the complexity of the "new immigration" gave added difficulty to the problem—both for the child and for the adult. With willingness to learn, the work of assimilating the child is comparatively easy—with the adult alien, settled down in European customs, the problem is different. For this class the evening schools, the parents' meetings, the public lectures in the vernacular of the audience and various special classes have been organized. Special classes are also conducted for the non-English speaking and illiterate children and every effort is made to fit them for work in the regular graded classes.

Town and Village Betterment

Edward T. Hartman

Secretary Massachusetts Civic League

The fifth session of the Massachusetts Conference for Town and Village Betterment, recently held in Boston, was indicative, among other things, of the very wide scope of village improvement as it is interpreted in Massachusetts. The subjects taken up for discussion show that this interpretation includes many things beyond the mere improvement of the physical environment. It showed that the citizen himself is the real objective and that local societies may find pleasant and profitable work in reaching the prospective citizen through the schools, through school extension, and through many other processes formerly not at all considered.

George E. Johnson in his paper on *The Village Boy* showed what valuable work may be done by local organizations in supplementing the work of the schools and in doing things, the value of which will be so fully demonstrated that the schools will take them up and make them a part of their regular work. This paper told directly of the work of the Andover play schools, which were run by a local society. These schools recognize the value of the play instinct in children, give them opportunities for satisfying this instinct, which is the real work of children, and thus broaden their abilities, sharpen their senses and develop them in the broadest and best way. He said that successful children were just as necessary as successful men and that in order to bring about the proper results we must recognize this fact. In Andover they secured the proper conditions by turning every instinct of the children into a proper and constructive channel instead of allowing it to go wild, with the usually bad results. To illustrate he repeated a story told by William J. Long. He once found some boys preparing to kill a spider. He asked them if they knew that the spider was a sailor and they, of course, did not. He secured a chip and mounted a miniature mast on it, placed the spider on the chip and the

chip in the water. The spider mounted the mast, threw out a cable to windward, and secured an anchorage on a twig. It then traveled to dry land over the cable. The boys gave three cheers for the spider and, as Mr. Long said, after that it would have been all a boy's life was worth to have killed the spider. Professor Hodge of Clark University and many other naturalists have shown that nature study in its proper development will counteract many of the so-called barbarous instincts of children by creating not a new interest in animals, but a different interest; one which is helpful both to the animal and to the child, instead of destructive to both.

Mr. Johnson quoted many interesting statements from parents showing the value of the play work as observed by them.

The round table conference which followed dealt mainly with the ways of interesting and educating country children, and particularly with those things which take the place of the old chore work and work in the home industries which have been abandoned under the factory system.

Professor Charles Eliot Norton spoke of the very interesting experiment in Ashfield. They found there that practically all things which once made Ashfield an active and interesting center have disappeared. The place was losing in population, having now only about half as many people as it once had, and a general spirit of stagnation seemed to prevail. He said that the main thing in rural districts is to create interest in some kind of work and particularly in work which has to do and is developed in connection with the local environment. In Ashfield they have secured this by offering prizes for almost any sort of work done by children. This includes the collection of specimens of minerals, flowers, woods, etc.; and various manual industries such as sewing, carpentry and making canes.

The value of sloyd for such children was developed by Mrs. W. W. Ollendorff of West Medway and Edward E. Bradley of Lincoln. Mrs. Ollendorff spoke of the work as a means for securing employment which would be interesting and helpful to the boys. At a total expense of fifty dollars from twelve to sixteen boys have been occupied during the past winter in this excellent way. The interest and the progress have both been satisfactory and all connected with the movement are encouraged to continue it.

Mr. Bradley took up the work simply as a means of bringing himself into closer contact with the boys in ways which appealed to them. He said, "It seemed to me that this kind of work took the boy on the right side and opened the right kind of relationship. We have carried on the work for several years and I have found that it has answered very well indeed my purpose in going into it. It has given me the kind of contact which I wanted. The chief benefit which a boy gets is moral. It teaches him the qualities of accuracy, of honesty, of faithfulness, love of doing useful things and the ability to hold himself to it until his work is done."

Howard Key Bartow of Cohasset described the work of the Cohasset Guild Hall which was established for practically the same purpose. The boys of Cohasset are being occupied in many useful ways and the Guild has done a great deal towards removing the boy problem.

Henry Turner Bailey told of what the schools are doing for the boy. He mentioned many things for which boys were usually punished and which are now a regular part of the school curriculum. Here again it is the play instinct which has been taken up and used. Mr. Bailey quoted St. Augustine as having said that he could not understand why boys are whipped for wishing to play ball and play tag instead of wishing to learn Latin and Greek. Most of the things which boys consider worth while and which form an essential part of boy life were formerly prohibited. They are now a part of the regular curriculum in progressive schools.

The evening session was given over to *The Federated Church as a Social Factor*, *The Village Library* and *The Proper Form of Fourth of July Celebration*. The Rev. Harry C. Kimball of South Weymouth showed what power a federated church could be in a rural community. He told of the distintegrating influences of churches, repeating practically what Professor Norton had said in the afternoon to the effect that the churches in rural communities were usually the main forces tending towards differences and disintegration. Among helpful things which a federated church might secure for a rural community, Mr. Kimball mentioned a sick room equipment league to furnish articles which would add comfort in sickness; a kindergarten for children which could be conducted till the public school system would take it up, a Sunday morning kindergarten which would enable parents to attend church; a village parish house which would serve as a social centre for all the people; a gymnasium where old and young would have that training which makes for strong and vigorous health; public baths and swimming tanks; Sunday schools in various parts of the village so as to be within easy reach of all the small children; neighborhood guilds which would meet the needs for mutual improvement and helpfulness; a community nurse; and each winter a course of lectures and concerts which could be well supported by such a united effort.

Miss Louisa M. Hooper of the Brookline library told of the need for greater support of libraries and librarians by the public in the various rural communities. She told of some libraries in Massachusetts which have been able to buy no books for years, and others which have no magazines except those which are far out of date and which do not offer very inspiring or satisfactory reading to those desiring to know what the present day world is doing.

George L. Munn of Easthampton, in his description of the way Easthampton celebrates the fourth of July, showed how the men and boys who are usually the worst element to contend with on the fourth may be made useful and rendered

harmless by being given congenial work to do. He told, for example, of a man who had been notorious as a fourth of July character who was kept sober and made useful by being placed in charge of a large squad of boys who had a part to perform in the parade. This man maintained the dignity of a new and gorgeous uniform and served his part in the performances of the day with a satisfaction equal to that of any other citizen in the community. Mr. Munn showed also that adults must work together harmoniously and effectively in such community affairs as a fourth of July celebration if they expect their children to work together harmoniously. He said that in Easthampton after twenty years of hard work on the part of the public spirited people, the children have found that it is no longer necessary, dignified, nor satisfying to make faces at each

other, call each other names or throw sticks and stones at each other. The fourth of July celebration developed in Easthampton is therefore not only a successful celebration, but it is a strong, unifying influence in the community. They find that the people who have worked together in such great harmony for such an event become better acquainted with each other and with each other's motives, and learn to recognize and appreciate the good that there is in everybody.

The societies composing the conferences voted to drop the conference as such and to join the Massachusetts Civic League, which agreed to conduct the conferences in the future. This move was made because it was felt that the interests of improvement organizations could be better served in this way.

Efficiency of Ships' Crews

Walter Macarthur

Since the burning of the excursion steamer General Slocum, with the loss of nine hundred and fifty lives, mostly women and children, and the more recent wreck of the steamer Valencia, also accompanied by great loss of life, much has been said, and a little has been done, in the matter of providing greater safety for life afloat.

The steamboat inspection laws have been overhauled by congress, with a view to insuring the better equipment of vessels, both in the matter of construction and appareling—lifeboats, life preservers, etc.

All this, of course, is good and necessary in itself, but it leaves a great, in fact, the greatest, source of danger untouched. That danger lies in the manning question, the question of crews.

It may be recalled that the commission appointed by President Roosevelt to investigate the Slocum disaster reported in very pointed terms upon this very question. The commission said:

The inefficiency and poor quality of the deck crew of this vessel (General Slocum), doubtless typical of the majority of the crews of excursion steamers, is one of the

essential facts that caused the loss of so many lives.

In view of these findings it might naturally be supposed that some steps would be taken to remove the "essential fact" of inefficient crews from possible connection with future mishaps afloat. So far, however, nothing practical has been done to this end. On the contrary, unless present prospects shall happily be disappointed, the manning question will be allowed to remain just as it stands, that is, absolutely at the discretion of the shipowner, to be dealt with upon considerations of profit, rather than of safety.

The present law on the subject is contained in section 4463, U. S. Revised Statutes, and is as follows:

No steamer carrying passengers shall depart from any port unless she shall have in her service a full complement of licensed officers and full crew, sufficient at all times to manage the vessel, including the proper number of watchmen.

The deficiency of this law is apparent at a glance. The words, "full crew," leave the number entirely a matter of option; the word "sufficient" leaves the

question of individual qualification open to the same objection. In practice the rule is that the steamboat inspectors in the respective ports stipulate the number of men to be carried by a given vessel. The question of qualification is left to the shipowner himself, who may employ seamen or landmen.

A Half-Way Measure.

A bill has been introduced in the present congress (known as Senate Bill 27), to amend the present statute (R. S., 4463) so as to require that passenger steamers shall be manned by "a full complement of licensed officers and crew, one-half of which shall be able-seamen."

This proposal raises the question: What is an able-seaman? In the absence of a definition on the subject, the provision that vessels must carry in their crews a certain proportion of able-seamen is meaningless, except so far as it implies that, as to the remaining proportion, the crews may be composed of landmen or other classes. In the latter conception of the passage of Senate Bill 27 would make matters worse instead of better, since it would relieve the shipowner from the present implied obligation to man his vessels wholly by able-seamen.

It is quite clear that any law on the subject, to be effective, must contain certain stipulations set forth in plain and set terms. The law must provide, not only that a certain proportion of each vessel's crew shall be able-seamen, but that that proportion must be sufficient in itself, and the able-seamen must be defined in terms which shall effect the purpose in view.

Proposed Legislation.

A bill containing these stipulations is now before congress. This measure, known as the Goulden bill (H. R., 12472), provides, in effect, that seventy-five per cent of the deck crew (that is, of deck hands, as distinguished from other members of the vessel's company), shall be able-seamen; that an able-seaman shall be at least nineteen years of age; that he shall have served at least three years on deck at sea or on the Great Lakes, and that he shall be able to understand the English language. It

will be noted, too, that the responsibility as to the total number of seamen to be carried by a given vessel is left with the local inspectors, as at present, the proposed requirement being simply that the men composing the crew shall be able-seamen of certain defined qualifications, to the extent of seventy-five per cent of their number. There is also a provision exempting steamers navigating rivers exclusively which applies only to inland river navigation, such as that on the Mississippi and its tributaries. Steamers plying in and around harbors, as in the case of the General Slocum, would come within the requirements of the Goulden bill.

This bill has received a large number of indorsements by maritime and other bodies, including the International Seamen's Union of America (by which body the measure was originated), Grand Harbor of Masters, Mates and Pilots, Marine Engineers' Benevolent Association, American Federation of Labor, etc.

A significant fact in connection with this measure is that it was passed by the senate during the last session of the fifty-eighth congress. The failure of the bill to become law at that time is due to the refusal of a mid-western congressman, who had control of it in the House, to permit its being taken up on the last day of the session.

The influences responsible for the defeat of a practical manning law are in evidence in the present congress. During the debate on the ship subsidy bill, which recently passed the Senate, Senator Spooner moved to substitute the seamen's proposal for that contained in the bill, *i. e.*, that subsidized vessels shall carry crews composed of able-seamen to the extent of one-half and that such able-seamen shall be men of two years' experience. Senator Spooner's motion was defeated by an aye and nay vote.

The Present Situation.

Unless a more effectively voiced public opinion shall demand the enactment of laws for the proper protection of life on passenger vessels the efforts of those who are now advocating such laws are not likely to succeed, as against the powerful interests opposed to them. At the

time of the Slocum disaster the press was loud in its denunciation of the apparent laxness in shipping practices and laws. Now that the proverbial nine days have passed, the press seems to have lost all interest. The legislation already enacted as a result of the Slocum affair is good in its way. Additional legislation will doubtless be enacted as a result of the Valencia wreck. But such legislation, both actual and prospective, deals only with the material, the physical, conditions of maritime enterprise. It is well that the laws regarding the inspection of hulls and boilers should be made more stringent. Equally important is it that the laws governing life-saving appliances should be rehabilitated and brought up to date. But with all possible precaution in such matters there still remains the possibility of accident.

In the latter contingency of what avail are life-boats in the absence of men to handle them? Clearly, it is as much the duty of congress to stipulate the qualifications of the men who must be depended upon to manage the boats or other life-saving appliances in an emergency, as to stipulate the character of these appliances. If human life is to be safeguarded the vital as well as the physical,

the personal as well as the material, elements of safety must be considered.

The conclusion is obvious, even to the lay man, that a ship well equipped in every material respect is still very much at the mercy of the elements unless she be also well equipped as to crew. A vessel's crew, sufficient as to numbers and efficient as to individual skill and experience, can do much with proper material, and may even perform prodigies without such material. An insufficient or inefficient crew is comparatively helpless even with the best appliances at hand.

"Enlightened self-interest" is no longer available as a dependence in this matter. Time was when the shipowner might be depended upon to adopt every precaution for the safety of his vessel, for financial if not for humanitarian reasons. That was in the period when the maritime law imposed strict obligations upon the shipowner and "limited liability" had not yet come to pass. But the shipowner has been up and doing in recent years, with the result that he has been relieved of much of the obligation that formerly rested upon him. If the public would safeguard itself against the existing dangers of travel by water it must insist upon the passage of an effective manning law.

Recent Magazines

BOOK REVIEWS. *The British Labor Party: Its Aims and Aspirations.* William Diack. (The Arena—May.) *The Value of an Immigrant.* Ex-Congressman Robert Baker, p. 504. *American Affairs.* (Public Opinion, p. 551—May 5.) *First Aid to the Injured and Sick.* F. J. Warwick. (The Lancet—April 21.) *Mental and Moral Heredity in Royalty.* Dr. Frederick Adams Woods. (The Am. Monthly Review of Reviews, p. 639—May.) *Studies in American Trade Unionism.* Edited by Prof. Jacob H. Hollander and Dr. George E. Barnett (Johns Hopkins University). The American Monthly Review of Reviews, p. 639—May.) *Studies in Socialism.* M. Jean Jaurès with an introduction by Mildred Minturn. (The Am. Monthly Review of Reviews, p. 639—May.) *The Jungle.* Upton Sinclair. (The State—April 28.) *Announcements of Conventions and Other Gatherings, 1906.* (The Am. Monthly Review of Reviews, p. 602—May.) *Government Regulation of Railway Rates.* Hugo R. Meyer. (Outlook—May 5.) *General Sociology.* Prof. Albion W. Small. (The Northern—May.) *A Decade of Civic Improvement.* Charles Zuehl. (The Northern—May.) *A Civic Primer.* Published by the Civic Committee of the General Federation of Women's Clubs. (The Northern—May.) *The Industrial Problem.* Lyman Abbott. (The Exponent—May.) *Die Sociale Verhältnisse der Juden in Russland.* Issued under the auspices of Zionist Actions Comité,

by the Bureau of Jewish Statistics in Berlin Halensee. (The American Hebrew—May 4.) *Principles of Scientific Socialism.* Charles H. Vail. (The Public—May 5.) *The Referendum in America.* Ellis Paxson Oberholtzer. (The Public—May 5.) *Industrial Training for the Blind.* (The Silver Cross, p. 17—May.) *Home for Incurables.* Mrs. Oscar Ragland. (The Silver Cross, p. 39—May.) *A Neglected Field of Nursing: the County Almshouse.* (American Journal of Nursing—May.) *The Crusade Against Venereal Diseases.* (Charities and The Commons, p. 503); (The American Journal of Nursing, p. 506—May.)

BOYS' CLUBS. *A Significant Boy Experiment.* Judge Albert McC. Mathewson. *The Boys' Good Government Clubs of New Haven, Conn.* (Independent—March 22.) *A Directory of Work With Boys.* (Work With Boys—April.) *Can Do.* (Public Opinion—April 14.)

CHILD LABOR. *Child Labor Legislation: a requisite for industrial efficiency.* Jane Addams. (The Bricklayer and Mason—January 1.) *Legislation for Children.* (Outlook—February 24.)

CHILDREN. *Sphere of the Home and the School.* Katharine Thicknesse, London. (C. O. S. Review—April.) *The Feeding and Clothing of Swiss School Children,* also *The Cause of the Underfeeding of Children.* (American Medicine—March 3.) *Millions Saved by School Children.* (Public Opinion—February 24.)

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The National Tuberculosis Meetings.

The second annual meeting of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis was held in Washington, May 16-18, and proved a worthy successor to the enthusiastic gathering which launched the association last year. The convention opened with a joint meeting of this association and the Association of American Physicians on Wednesday evening, at which the main address was made by Dr. Simon Flexner of New York, and at which Dr. Trudeau spoke briefly as did Dr. Frank Billings of Chicago, the presiding officer.

At the general meeting on Thursday evening a vigorous address by Dr. F. L. Flick, who presided in the absence of President Biggs, described the aims, duties and opportunities of the National Association. Dr. Flick was followed by the executive secretary, Dr. Livingston Farrand who presented a report on the work of the association during the past year. A notable point was the growth of the association from 400 at the time of the last meeting to over 1,000 at this date. It was also reported that there are now in existence ten state associations for the prevention of tuberculosis, and some twenty-five local associations with the prospect of a rapid increase in these societies in the immediate future. The report also described the co-operation of the national association with other national bodies, such as the American Federation of Labor, the Y. M. C. A., the National Federation

of Women's Clubs, and similar organizations. The statistics with regard to the tuberculosis exhibitions being held in different cities throughout the country under the auspices of the National Association, show that over 150,000 have attended these exhibitions up to date.

At the business meeting which followed, the directors whose terms expired were re-elected, namely, Doctors Bracken of Minnesota, Carter of Texas, Jacobs of Maryland, Otis of Massachusetts, Trudeau of New York, and Welch of Maryland.

Permanent Organization of Relief Work in San Francisco.

A report on the present organization of relief in San Francisco was presented on May 18 and adopted, to be changed as necessary when the army withdraws. The significant portions are as follows: Except in so far as the storing, transportation and distribution of relief supplies is in the hands of the military authorities, responsibility for the actual work of relief devolves upon Dr. Edward T. Devine, special representative of the National Red Cross and those whom he may appoint as his assistants or representatives in each of the seven civil sections into which the city has been divided for relief purposes by the military authorities. There is in each a chairman appointed by the special representative of the National Red Cross. This chairman is held generally responsible for the management of the relief stations and for any special forms of re-

lief which may be conducted upon the district plan. This chairman is unpaid but has such necessary assistants as may be authorized by Dr. Devine. With Dr. Devine's approval, he may appoint or remove the superintendent of any relief station, change the location of or discontinue any relief station and employ when necessary paid assistants in the management of any relief station, a complete statement of the pay roll and other obligations necessarily incurred in the discharge of these duties being filed weekly for the information of the finance committee. A registration bureau, employment bureau and a special relief and rehabilitation committee are conducted independently of the district organization and under the direct supervision of the National Red Cross headquarters.

Miss Lilian Brandt, secretary of the Committee on Social Research of the New York Charity Organization Society, leaves this week for San Francisco to assist in handling the records of the relief work.

**New York
Summer
School of
Philanthropy.**

The first two weeks of the New York Summer Session of the School of Philanthropy, which opens June 18, will be devoted to institutions, with lectures upon the neuropathic family, the care of the insane, the feeble-minded, the criminal, children, the almshouse, hospitals and dispensaries and the social church. Alexander Johnson, general secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, will be in charge of the class discussions the first week. The second fortnight will be devoted to the care of needy families, with Mrs. John M. Glenn, of Baltimore, in charge of the discussion during the third week. Lectures will be upon such topics as the standard of living, the causes of poverty, the administration of relief, the charity organization society, co-operation of volunteers, the mendicant, care of discharged prisoners, the family and natural ties in work for children. The last two weeks will be devoted to constructive social work with lectures upon the social significance of heredity, child labor, vacant lot cultivation, juvenile courts, social settlements, employment of partially defective, the assimilation of immigrants, and problems of public health. Candidates for admission to the summer session are requested to write to the assistant director, Carl Kelsey, 105 E. 22d Street, for further information. After June 5, Mr. Kelsey will be glad to meet personally upon appointment, any who may wish to consult him relative to the work of the school, at the above address.

**Another
Step Toward
a Great
Public Beach.**

Several years ago Charles B. Stover began urging the purchase of a great seaside park, for Greater New York, and suggested Rockaway Beach as the proper place. This year Dr. John W. Brannan, president of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, spoke to the mayor of what he had seen abroad in the way of convalescent seaside homes. The mayor at once expressed the opinion that this was a solution of the seaside park plan since if the park and convalescent homes could be combined without detriment to either, the city could find the money to secure the necessary land. Therefore, at the mayor's suggestion a bill was introduced in the legislature which has now become law. The bill authorizes the city to purchase a site for such park and convalescent homes within or without the city limits, and authorizes the comptroller to issue bonds to the extent of \$2,500,000 for land, and \$250,000 for maintenance and development during the present year.

The bill further provides that the tract when purchased shall be under the control of the park department except that when the Board of Estimate and Apportionment has appropriated sufficient funds to erect a convalescent hospital, the amount of land necessary for this hospital shall be withdrawn from the control of the park department and placed under the control of the department erecting the hospital, *i. e.*, either the trustees of Bellevue, the commissioner of health, or the commissioner of public charities.

The bill also allows the Board of Estimate and the sinking fund commissioners to lease to the various fresh air societies sites for the erection of their fresh air homes. This is done on the ground that these homes are saving the city money through preventing sickness in those whom they take upon vacations.

The selection of the site for the park, for which there have been numerous propositions, rests with the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. There will be a hearing before that body on Friday, June 1, at two P. M.

The National Conference of Jewish Charities

Maurice H. Harris

Perhaps the most important work effected by the National Conference of Jewish Charities was achieved before its sessions properly opened, an item, too, not contained on its official program—*i. e.*, the sending of two delegates to report on the San Francisco situation. So fast do events move that since the planning of this biennial meeting an event had occurred more profoundly affecting the work of charity than any of the questions proposed to come before it. It demonstrated, too, the necessity of a *national* organization. Here were delegates meeting on the Atlantic seaboard concerned with the needs of those of the Pacific slope. In philanthropy we must cultivate vast scope and learn to think continentally.

The president, Judge Julian W. Mack, of Chicago, in his introductory address, covered in a fine survey all the varied questions to be considered in the three days' conference. Yet even then the central word was immigration. We may say that the migration of races is the first chapter in human history and so far it is the last. And the Jew is the classic wanderer. Not one but every epoch in his history is marked by an exodus.

It is noticeable further that immigration is not *one* of our American Jewish problems, but underlies them all. Cyrus L. Sulzberger gave the statistics of the removal office—24,000 transported from East to West. What is this but emigration within emigration? The congestion in great cities, with its moral evils as touched on by Mr. Younker and its physical evils as brought out in Dr. Krauskopf's paper on agriculture as antidote for tuberculosis—is not immigration its source? It is true that as pointed out by Dr. Bogen only 34% of applicants for relief in New York are immigrants of the first year; but the fact remains that the bulk of our relief is distributed to immigrants from first to fourth year, while immigration and wife desertion are related as cause and effect.

As philanthropy is fast becoming a science as well as an art, the social settlement is looming to the front, as perhaps the best means of meeting the conditions of the great submerged. While the objective view has its value, still in the long run we can best help a social group by being in its midst and to a degree sharing its life. It is further the best demonstration of preventive work in which the proverb of an ounce saving a pound of cure is as true when applied to philanthropy as to any other experience. For as hinted by one of the speakers, poverty may be a chronic disease as well as an accidental condition. It may be prevented by education and by discipline rather than by money. We shall never be able to measure the amount of poverty that the settlement is preventing.

The girl is another great problem that perplexes the philanthropists more in these days of liberty and emancipation than in any earlier day. Miss Sommerfeld pointed out the perils surrounding the unmarried, unprotected girl that comes to us from Russia. Is not this yet another social problem resulting from immigration? Three dollars a week, which so many of them earn—saves them from being objects of charity, while yet being insufficient to support them. *How do they earn the balance?* Hence the need of girls' training schools to make their services of greater market value. It is significant that on the day when this was uttered in Philadelphia, May 7, the Jewish Industrial School for Girls was dedicated in New York.

In view of this demonstrated need was it not a pity that the proposition to establish an industrial home for friendless girls in Alabama presented by Miss Gelder, was not more warmly supported? The Conference should have understood that delicacy induced the writer to use "friendless" as a euphemism for wayward.

Equal if not more pressing on our consideration than the girl is the problem of the child. At this Conference only the child as orphan was considered; surely the most helpless instance in humanity. No one need argue any more in favor of the cottage plan. Let us hope that that campaign of education is complete. No one could have presented it more convincingly than Dr. Bernstein. Elements needed in a child's nurture which a home can best give are—love, encouraging appreciation, diversity of contact in daily experience and the economic value of money. It is coming. On Tuesday, May 15, the cornerstone of the New York Jewish Protectory was laid at Hawthorne—the buildings are to be arranged on the cottage plan.

Those who handled the question of the farmer Jew enthusiastically claimed that it would solve the problem of poverty. We need enthusiasm; and he who believes that his individual work contains society's panacea will best serve both his work and society. But let us realize, too, that no one project will eradicate poverty or "the ills that it is heir to." But for more reasons than one we would like to see the Jew of to-day in the field. He needs that counter-balancing nurture. Let us carry the crusade into the sweat-shops and beat our needles into plough shares and our sewing machines into pruning hooks.

The best that Jewish charity has achieved in the last five years is federation. One of its results marked the opening word of the Conference. Mr. Hackenberg, the introductory speaker, pointed out that federation had doubled Philadelphia's charity receipts. I am writing this from New York; and, when

I hear of the splendid results achieved by federation, in Cincinnati, Chicago, St. Louis, and New Orleans, I feel a little ashamed that the distributor of the greatest volume of charity should be slowest to avail itself of the most approved mode of organization. Well, that too, will come. The greater the magnitude of relief, the longer must be the process of its unification.

Judge Mack's Address. At the opening meeting of the Conference, Judge Julian W. Mack of Chicago, the Conference president, spoke in part as follows:

"A quarter of a millennium ago, when the Jews sought a home in this land, the favor, not the right, was accorded to them, but upon the express condition that they should provide for and take care of their poor, so that they should not be a burden upon the community.

"To-day the Jew no longer need ask the gracious consent of the sovereign power, but may come freely and under the same conditions as all others. Nevertheless, he conceives it to be his duty—no longer to his fellow Americans, but to himself, to his religion, to his fellow Jews—faithfully to carry out this pledge given by his ancestors, the contemporaries of the Puritans and the Cavaliers. This explains the need of our own separate charities, to better and to strengthen which we have created this National Conference.

"But though we undertake our self-imposed tasks gladly, aye, proudly, we shall not be the less active, in all unsectarian or joint-sectarian work. We shall welcome and join in every philanthropic union. And therefore we should give our approval to the merger of our official organ, JEWISH CHARITY with CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, by actively supporting this, the one magazine which is indispensable to whomsoever wishes to keep abreast of the times in social and philanthropic work and thought.

"Many of our aims are common to all Americans. The immigration question, *e. g.*, is not in any true sense a Jewish problem; it is a national one. It raises the fundamental query: Shall America pursue her mission? Shall she be the leader of liberty among the nations? Shall her doors in the future as in the past swing gladly open at the knock of every decent applicant? Shall she continue to be the refuge of the victim of political oppression and religious bigotry? Shall she grow greater and stronger through the labors, the energy, the love, aye, the fanatical devotion of those who at last have found a haven of peace and rest in her broad lands, or shall she, heeding the cry of some who fear a personal loss, themselves but immigrants one, two or three generations removed, reverse her national policy and sink to the know-nothing level?

"This, I say, is not a Jewish problem, though we as Jews are vitally interested in it.

"Many sections of the country offer abund-

ant opportunity for work—aye, even in New York, or shall I say particularly in New York, crowded as it is, the newcomer finds little difficulty in securing employment; real character, even without book-learning, teaches him thrift; the opportunities that our public schools afford enable him to educate and Americanize his children, and none is quicker than he to take advantage thereof.

"Especially is all of this true of the Jewish immigrant of the last quarter century. Though he may be in the beginning and in a measure dependent upon his co-religionists—not upon the community at large—the persistency of this condition is very brief, as we shall learn from the statistical studies that Dr. Bogen has made on this subject. They will demonstrate that were it not for the continuous stream of immigration, most of the work that our Jewish charities, especially the relief offices are doing, would be in a few years practically finished.

"But we cannot look forward too hopefully to such an end. The clouds that gathered on our horizon shortly before the last conferences, in the Kishineff outrages, far from being dispelled, grew blacker and blacker, culminating in the terrible pogroms of 1905, the horrors of Odessa and the eighty or more other towns of Russia. Easter has passed without a repetition of these torturing crimes. What the future has in store for the Russian Jew, God only knows. Against the bigotry in high places and in low, the mighty forces of civilization are waging a fierce battle for control. Russia can never again be the Russia of old. Whether autocracy conquer in the end or constitutional monarchy, or even republic supplant it, some betterment in the condition of the Jews seems inevitable.

"None thought a few months ago that from our own people a call for aid would come. We have all poured out a golden stream for the sufferers in San Francisco. The most appalling single calamity in the history of our country aroused the American people to a prompt and united response. Jew and non-Jew have joined heartily, generously, lavishly, in giving; Jew and non-Jew will receive impartially and according to the individual needs. But, though we give ever so bountifully to the general fund, we must not refuse the special additional claim of our fellow Jews, to assist in the reconstruction and temporary maintenance of their destroyed institutions and crippled organizations.

"At the call of several San Francisco societies we are investigating the situation on the spot through a special committee. On their report a full statement will be made and an appeal issued for whatever assistance may be required.

"One of the great evils that led to the formation of this conference was the habit of sending applicants from town to town, irrespective of their ability to maintain themselves and without inquiry of, or notice to, the authorities of the place to which

transportation was given. To get rid of a case in any way was the principle that too often guided the action of relief boards. The adoption of the transportation rules has reduced the enormous expenditures for railroad fares to a minimum; has brought about a genuine spirit of co-operation between our members, and has saved the poor overstrained, often neurotic, applicants the useless wear and tear involved in shifting them about. During the past two years your arbitration committee has had but one complaint involving the interpretation of the governing rules. The evil is well nigh eradicated.

"The present generation of children must receive the training and education that will create a healthy dissatisfaction with crowded unsanitary conditions—that will enable the girls to make the home, however poor and simple, as attractive as the cafes, that will teach them to cook, to sew, to be the real companion to the husband, the thrifty housewife, the helpful mother.

"The work of Jewish charity must become more and more preventive instead of merely palliative; to strike at the roots of an evil, to suppress it, to save the coming generations, may be more expensive than to patch up the damaged wrecks of humanity; and the results are less readily seen in statistical reports; to make a man self-sustaining is at the start more costly than to give him alms, but we are all agreed that in the long run it is cheaper and, theoretically, we are all doing it.

"We have not yet thoroughly comprehended the need of experts in this work. Our problems are extremely complex. They require years of study, both in the school and in the field. Real experience cannot be gained by merely watching and talking with the applicants for relief in the relief offices. Homes must be visited again and again; the environments must become well known; friendly relations must be established with the members of the family. Only the trained worker can do this thoroughly. In New York, Chicago, Boston and St. Louis, schools of philanthropy have been founded.

"While the trained superintendents are essential as guides, the hope for a betterment in the future is, in my judgment, in the Jewish women. We welcome to our conference all of the twenty-five organizations that have joined us since the last meeting, but none more so than that influential and highly valuable body, the National Conference of Jewish Women. The women have been the chief promoters of some of the newer forms of preventive work. They have established much-needed homes for orphaned working girls—homes that are really places of rest, recreation and comfort, in which the girls and women find these genuine pleasures so essential to their happiness; without which their thirst for entertainment drives so many of them in our large cities to the public dance halls and to their ruin. To the administration of the juvenile court laws everywhere the women are the greatest

support. As probation officers and friendly visitors they are watching over the coming generation of men and women. As guides to the children, as friends to the parents, they are giving of their time and their thoughts and their sympathies; they are indeed doing God's work on earth.

"We must not in our pride hide the facts which are brought out daily in the juvenile and police courts. Delinquency is on the increase among our boys; no longer is the Jewish girl a synonym for virtue. This condition brings with it two problems—the care of the delinquent, the prevention of delinquency. Primarily the care of these children is in the hands of the state, but frequently delinquent children are committed to private institutions. The facilities that the state affords too often fall far short of the needs; the aim of the juvenile court, not to punish and imprison, but to train and to educate, can be carried out only if the institutions are really schools, not prisons. In most cities it has become necessary, from the lack of Jewish institutions and the inadequacy of the provisions made by the state, to send our children to institutions under non-Jewish denominational control. New York, through its new protectory, aims to check this practice. My own view is that a united public opinion should exercise sufficient pressure on the public authorities to provide full and complete facilities for all; but until that is done, it may be desirable to maintain a Jewish protectory. Smaller communities in each state might band together and establish a farm school for delinquents, just as years ago the Cleveland Orphan Asylum was founded, and is now maintained by a number of cities.

"The more important question, however, is not what shall we do to redeem the delinquent, but how shall we check delinquency? Primarily, we must study its causes; we must know the conditions that produce the lapse. At times they are susceptible of medical treatment; generally, the home conditions resulting from poverty or death and depriving the child of proper parental care, sometimes, but not very often among the Jews, parental depravity is responsible for the wrongs of the child; too frequently the natural environments of the section in which the lad lives fully account for them. All that is implied in the housing problem so vividly portrayed at the sessions of the National Council is of great moment in this connection, as, indeed, in all lines of our work.

"Though the stream of immigration may in time be partially diverted from our large cities, and with bettered conditions in Europe be greatly checked, nevertheless we cannot hope radically to relieve the congestion of our so-called ghetto districts. As the prosperity of the people and their demands on life grow, there is a natural tendency to seek more comfortable quarters. But newcomers who cannot be persuaded to immigrate elsewhere are ever ready to take their places.

"When the physical surroundings so react on the child as to produce delinquency or dependency, the juvenile courts can aid by conditioning his return to the home on the removal of the family to other sections of the city. Private aid, too, in paying increased rentals in better localities to families which give promise of their becoming self-supporting will doubtless accomplish much. But more must be done. We must bring in the good if we want to drive out the bad.

"The lad whose natural fondness for sport and athletics is encouraged in the gymnasium, the boys' club, the athletic field, is easily kept from the gambling dens that infest these regions and ultimately lead to theft and other delinquencies; the young girl who craves beautiful surroundings, and above all the dance, should not be driven from a dingy, over-crowded home into the gaudy palaces of vice and shame from the lack of decent places of amusement.

"Technical and trade schools are the most valuable agencies in training the young for successful industrial careers; settlements, at first, attract the earnest children who are in small danger of going wrong, but when properly conducted, forming a centre of light and joy, with the workers living in the house and being a real integral part of the neighborhood, they can gradually draw in those who are not eager for book learning, but have the natural desire of every healthy young person for pleasures, and stimulate them to higher aims.

"The federation movement originating in Cincinnati in 1899, is spreading rapidly throughout our country. New York is seriously considering its adoption. We of the smaller cities can offer no advice to the metropolis; her people know their own needs and how best to meet them. But we can say in encouragement of the federation scheme that no city in which it has been adopted has abandoned it; in none, so far as I know, is its feasibility and superiority to the old system even questioned. That it has increased the subscription lists and eliminated waste is generally conceded; that no partiality has been shown to any constituent body is apparent from the lack of complaint; that it does not prevent new and needed undertakings, Chicago's experience in founding a home for the friendless and in rebuilding its hospital at a cost of half a million dollars abundantly demonstrates.

"If New York adopts either federation or some other scheme of financial centralization of its Jewish charities, the very greatest impetus will be given to the movement. And if she succeeds in uniting all elements of her people in one body, a new mark will be set for most, if not all, of those cities in which an Associated Jewish Charities has been established.

"I shall not attempt a discussion of the orphan asylum question. We threshed that out thoroughly at the last conference. But unless we are to build new asylums, homes must be found. New York had begun this

work in small measure shortly before the last conference. Since then, however, a real advance has been made. What holds true in New York will be found true elsewhere. The experience of the committee which had anticipated the arrival of five hundred of the Russian orphans of 1905, and had determined that they should not receive the congregate love and care of an institution, but the individualized affection of a Jewish home, the ready response that their appeal met with in all sections of the country is a sufficient guarantee that with the necessary funds—no more than it takes to maintain institutions—and right direction, no difficulty will be experienced. Chicago is soon to follow in the lines of New York, though without the financial assistance which the latter city grants to all of its wards from the public treasury. Cincinnati, ever in the lead, has sent no children to an orphan asylum in several years. There, as in some other communities, widows are granted pensions so as to enable them to keep their children at home, and not only to keep them, but to rear them. For the problem is only half solved if the allowance is so inadequate as to compel them to join the ranks of the working mothers whose children, deprived of the parental care and oversight, are rapidly increasing the truant and the delinquent classes.

"Tuberculosis is chiefly responsible for our rapidly increasing number of orphans. It is to-day the gravest problem that confronts the charity worker. Our entire country is vitally interested in it. No charity conference fails to devote a session to a discussion of its many phases. The value of local sanatoria will be explained to us by Dr. Sachs; their efficacy in the treatment of incipient cases is undoubted. They are our hope for the great masses. But no patient who can possibly get to Denver or some other favorable location, is content to remain at home. And no wiser expenditure can be made than by sending the curable patient to the National Hospital at Denver, provided the example of Cincinnati be followed. She does not rest content with sending the husband and father to the hospital for six months or more. When he is ready to be released, she keeps him in Denver or the surrounding country; his family is sent to him; he is established in his trade or business and until he can become self-sustaining in the new community he and his family are adequately supported.

"The experienced business man does not underrate the value of discounting his bills; Cincinnati gets a heavy discount by reason of her large original outlay. But if it were not the wise plan from the business standpoint, if it were in the end more costly, should we not in every city aim to follow this noble example? Here, if anywhere, is manifested the true spirit of Jewish charity—the spirit that asks not what is the cost, but what the result.

"What shall be said of that magnificent

hospital in Denver—our hospital—for it is truly national. Its management and its staff deserve the highest commendation. The importance of limiting its aid to curable cases is demonstrated by the cheerful, hopeful, comfortable feeling that pervades its walls and that of itself is the best medicine for the patients. Surely it deserves our united support. Its wise and stringent rules in regard to admission, added to other causes, have led to the establishment of the Jewish Consumptives' Relief Society, also a national organization. Much good is accomplished at its sanatorium, though the society has been hampered in its work by inadequate funds.

"The tent plan adopted at first is now seen to be insufficient for certain cases. The expressed object of the society is to care for advanced cases. No examination in the home city is required; no case is rejected if the applicant succeeds in reaching Denver. That a hospital for advanced and incurable cases is highly desirable is conceded by all; the bringing together, however, of advanced and incipient cases is obviously dangerous to the latter. Moreover, though incurables are not expressly invited to Denver, the knowledge that they will be cared for tends to bring them here. There is a real danger of arousing adverse public sentiment in Colorado if this continues. That this institution comes nearer to a Kosher establishment than the other is beyond question; that both fall far short of, and in the nature of the case, cannot possibly be maintained on a Kosher basis, is equally clear. If I have pointed out some dangers involved in the newer institution, I do not hesitate to praise the self-sacrificing work of its managers and staff, or to applaud their most humane and charitable purposes.

"Each generation must learn from its own mistakes; the methods which the Jews of fifty years ago and their descendants adopted in their works of mutual help, do not answer the more complex needs of the people of our congested cities of to-day. But while the Russian Jews must and will work out their own path in American life, there surely ought to be the most active co-operation between them and their co-religionists. Too long separated into mutually mistrustful bands, we have at last come together, united by a common grief. May the bond of union, cemented with the blood of our brethren in Russia, never again be broken; may we learn to know one another better, and knowing, trust one another the more; divided though we may be in our religious thought and practice, into orthodox, conservative and radical, in our hopes and aspirations into Zionists and anti-Zionists and territorialists, let us henceforth be united in our works of charity and philanthropy, all pledged to the protection and help of our fellow Jews in trouble or distress, here and in foreign lands, all joining with our fellow citizens of every creed in every philanthropic or uplifting movement that will

lighten the load of the burdened, ease the troubled minds of the distressed, give solace to the suffering and hope to the despairing, that will eradicate evil and wrong and produce a generation of American citizens worthy of their heritage."

The Industrial Removal Office.

Cyrus Sulzberger, president of the Industrial Removal Office of New York, told of the practical results accomplished by that organization. After explaining the machinery of the society, Mr. Sulzberger stated that since the work began in 1901, 22,491 persons have been sent from New York, up to the close of last year. These people have been sent to 361 cities and towns throughout the United States, some to every state and territory in the United States, and some to Canada. The maximum sent to any one state is 2700—to Missouri. The minimum to any one state is one—to Nevada; two to the state of New Hampshire, but no state in the Union to which there have not been sent some. Fifty-six for instance, to Oklahoma; forty-five to Indian territory. Last year there were sent to 335 places less than fifty persons to a place, and to twenty-six places more than fifty persons to a place.

In concluding Mr. Sulzberger said that while a large number had been sent away from New York in five years, it must be realized that 35,000 Jews have arrived within two months. To make the work successful active co-operation was necessary.

Family Desertion Law.

A paper on desertion with special bearing on the recently enacted New York law was contributed by Lee K. Frankel, manager of the United Hebrew Charities of New York and associate editor of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS. In the absence of Dr. Frankel his paper was read by Charles Zunser of New York. It reviewed the work of the Committee on Desertions which presented a report at the first meeting of the Conference of Jewish Charities in Chicago in 1900, giving a decided impetus to the entire question. He outlined the various investigations which have been made in their bearing upon legislative remedies. In part he said:

"The desertion law in the state of New York, which went into effect on September 1, 1905, places abandonment of children on an entirely different plane from heretofore. Under the former law, desertion was a misdemeanor, punishable by fine and by imprisonment for a term not exceeding six months. Under this law, it was practically impossible to prosecute an offender who had left the jurisdiction of the commonwealth, for the reason that the governor of the state was not inclined to issue extradition papers for a misdemeanor. The charitable societies of the city and state, realizing the shortcomings of existing legislation, appointed a committee to draft a new law, declaring desertion to be a felony, and after considerable

pressure being brought on the legislature by the charitable activities of the state, it eventually became a law.

"After most careful consideration, it was deemed inadvisable to make the law apply to wife desertion only, since it was felt that no legislature would be willing to punish a man very severely for desertion of wife alone. In fact, it was felt that juries, before whom such cases might be brought, would be apt to exercise considerable leniency where it was discovered that any hardship was involved through the desertion of the wife, particularly in cases where there were no children. The New York law, for this reason, is novel in that wife desertion is not mentioned. The law as it reads has reference only to the abandonment of children.

"Immediately after the law went into effect, the United Hebrew Charities of the city of New York determined to make a very active campaign for the prosecution of deserters under the new law. In this movement, it was aided by the agitation that had been carried on for some time in the columns of the *Jewish Daily News* of New York, which had been making an active campaign through its columns in finding deserting husbands. So that the work could be made as general as possible, a special committee was organized, under whose auspices the results that are hereafter mentioned have been accomplished. The active propaganda of the work and the funds necessary for its maintenance have been supplied by the United Hebrew Charities. At the outset the committee decided on certain fundamental principles to guide its work. It was felt that the main object of the committee was not so much to punish deserters as to reunite them with their families and prevent the latter from becoming burdens on the community. At the same time it was recognized that there would be instances in which no other means would be effective and in which it would be necessary to apply the law to its full effect.

"Of paramount importance, however, was the fact the best way to overcome desertion was to give as much publicity as possible to the offenders and to compel him either through fear of punishment or through fear of social ostracism to voluntarily return and assume the responsibilities which he had forgotten. It was conceded at the outset that only through a systematic propaganda would the work of the committee become effective.

"The matter is brought to the attention of the Conference here to show what can be accomplished with the deserters under a plan such as has been outlined above. At the beginning it was recognized that to do the work effectively, someone thoroughly conversant with the legal situation should be employed, who would give his entire time and attention to the work. It is only fitting that some recognition should be given to Charles Zunser, the special desertion agent, who has been employed by the committee, for the in-

telligence and the care with which he has carried on the committee's work. No less praise should be accorded to the Jewish press, (and in particular the *Jewish Daily News*) for the co-operation which they have tendered in giving the work of the committee the proper publicity. In fact, it can safely be said that without the help of the press, it is impossible to obtain the means of getting that publicity which is so desirable not only in finding offenders, but in inducing them to return.

"In detail, the work of the committee has been as follows: Publicity was given in all papers to all deserted wives, advising them to appear before the committee and bring with them all the facts in their possession, through which the deserting husband might possibly be traced. These facts included, in particular, photographs of the husband, place of his last occupation, and the name of his employer. After the wife's statement was taken, a special investigator at once visited the home, employer, relatives and friends, in order to obtain information regarding the present whereabouts of the deserter. An active campaign was at once started in the newspapers, calling attention to the formation of the committee, citing the law, and making a statement that it was the intention of the committee to organize each community in the United States in such a manner that information of the deserter was to be spread broadcast throughout the country and the respective communities asked to co-operate in ascertaining his whereabouts. The deserters were further given to understand that if they returned and resumed their responsibilities, there was no question of subsequent punishment. If they did not do so, the committee held itself ready to make all necessary expenditures in finding the husband, prosecuting him, engaging the necessary legal counsel, and where it was not possible to prosecute under the law, to send the wife and the family to the residence of the husband to prosecute him in the city or state in which he lived. The effect of this propaganda was immediately apparent. The matter was taken up by the readers of the Jewish press throughout the United States, many of them at once offering assistance in organizing similar committees in other communities. It was not uncommon for a deserter, whose whereabouts had been unknown for years, to write to his wife, asking for forgiveness, and promising to return if he would be guaranteed against punishment. In all of these instances the wife was told to advise the husband that the committee would take no action, if he would only support his family. In other instances, the whereabouts of the husband were discovered either through friends or acquaintances, who read the description of the men in the newspapers, with the result that correspondence was opened at once with the societies in the respective cities. If the man was located, the committee did not hesitate, if they could not prosecute under the New York state law,

to at once forward the wife and children to the city in which the husband lived, at the same time guaranteeing the society of the city against any expense that might be involved either in the support of the family while in the city or in making the necessary prosecutions. This action was necessary in many instances, for the reason that the New York law was not retro-active and desertions taking place before September 1, 1905, are still considered misdemeanors and cannot be classified as felonies.

"The results of the work that have been done by the committee since October 15th, is best told in the accompanying statement:

Report of the Desertion Agent

For the period beginning Oct. 15, 1905, and ending May 1, 1906.

Place of Desertion.

In New York state before Sept. 1, 1905..	292
In New York state after Sept. 1, 1905...	195
In other states of the Union.....	36
In foreign countries.....	57
Desertion story found to be fictitious...	11

591

Termination of Cases.

TABLE 1.

Number of cases settled in court.....	54
Of these, husbands now supporting families	33
“ “ husbands serving a term in prison	18
“ “ husbands released from prison at wife's request	2
“ “ husband arrested but could not be made to support his family as he is without means...	1

—54

TABLE 2.

Number of cases settled outside of court and husbands now supporting families	63
Of these, husband wrote wife, mentioned desertion committee and returned...	2
“ “ husband requested wife to come to him	6
“ “ families sent to husband and re-unions effected.	6
“ “ wife was deserted in another city, man came to New York, effected a re-union and took family with him	2
“ “ supporting families as direct result of committee's work	47

—63

TABLE 3.

Number of cases pending in court....	48
Of these, warrants issued for.....	31
“ “ action for divorce was begun by woman	5
“ “ pending in court outside of New York state.....	3

Of these, in hands of corporation counsel	1
“ “ awaiting trial, man released on bail.....	2
“ “ indictment found.....	3
“ “ in hands of attorneys...	3
“ “ extradition proceedings pending	1

—48

TABLE 4.

Miscellaneous.

Of these, numbers of cases in which the families were sent to prosecute or join husband, cases pending...	23
“ “ number of cases in which negotiations for settlement are pending.....	42
Wife refuses to prosecute as she received a "Get" from husband.....	3
Desertion story fictitious.....	11
Awaiting further information and development	349

—426

"The results that have been thus far accomplished demonstrate one thing, namely—that if the system which has been followed in New York could be extended throughout the United States, it would be possible to discover many of the deserters, whose cases were quoted above, as still pending investigation, and that the percentage of desertion occurring could be materially reduced.

"The number of bank robberies that occur to-day in the United States is apparently limited. There can be no doubt that this is due to the knowledge on the part of most individuals that crime of this kind is not forgotten and that the criminal, even if he be a fugitive of justice, is followed up to any part of the United States or even to any part of the earth persistently and relentlessly by the officers of the government or of the detective bureau to whom the search for the criminal has been entrusted. It seems to be almost axiomatic that bank forgers and bank robbers eventually are located and there can be no doubt that the fear of final detection, notwithstanding the best laid plans for escape, acts as a strong deterrent against this special form of theft.

"The same principle must be applied to our deserters. Desertion has become more frequent and more pronounced for the simple reason that it is possible for an offender to leave his family, to go to another state, possibly to change his name and to live the rest of his life without any danger of being apprehended. It is only when charitable societies will work in unison and harmony, so that the description of every deserter can be sent to every other community to which he may possibly have gone, and that in each of these communities there shall be an active committee or agent, whose business it will be to find his whereabouts, that the fear of almost immediate capture will, to a large extent, determine the prospective deserter to remain at home and keep up his responsibility

ties, rather than to suffer the consequences if he is apprehended and prosecuted. Probably no other class of people are so fortunately circumstanced as are we. It is peculiar that the Jewish press circulates widely throughout the United States and reaches a class of readers who would be most apt to come in contact with deserters, and what is of equal importance, would be rid of the deserter himself. If the prospective deserter knew that almost immediately after his departure from home, the relief organization or rather his wife, through the relief organization, was to publish through the papers, a full description of his appearance and his photograph, if obtainable, and that there was every likelihood that his wife and family would be sent on to him or that extradition papers would immediately be issued for his apprehension, and if he realized that he would be apt to be immediately recognized in the other communities to which he intended to go, there can be little doubt that the amount of desertion would be very materially reduced. It is the hope of the writer that the presentation of these facts to the Conference and to the individual societies comprising the Conference will effect some joint action leading to the formation of a national Jewish registration bureau for deserters."

**Jewish
Dependent
Children.** In speaking of the problem of placing out Jewish dependent children, Ludwig B. Bernstein, superintendent of the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Orphan Asylum, New York, told of the practical work that is being accomplished by the New York Bureau of Boarding and Placing Out Jewish Dependent Children. On theoretical grounds he maintained that a system of liberal pensions to prevent the breaking up of families is the most natural and most advisable method. Inadequate pensions, however, do more harm than good and in such cases Dr. Bernstein advised that the parents be temporarily relieved of the child until they reach a self-supporting stage.

"The home of adoption," he continued, "preserves practically all the characteristics of the natural parental home. * * *

"Under what conditions is such a home the best child-caring method? It is desirable, first, if the home is good and promising, promising as far as the future of the child is concerned. It is furthermore desirable if the foster parents have no children and are willing to take the burden of bringing up a very young child. Thirdly, it is desirable only, if an agreement is made by which the home can be made subject to frequent intelligent inspection before and to some extent after the adoption of the child.

"On the other hand, the policy of placing children ranging between ten and fifteen years of age into distant homes of adoption, a policy by no means uncommon among non-Jewish child-placing agencies, must be emphatically condemned. In a number of in-

stances it has resulted in ruined careers and in slavery.

"Using as a basis of judgment the characteristics of the normal parental home, the institution enthusiast has again to yield to the superiority of the ideal boarding home. In the latter it is absolutely possible to get every essential characteristic of the natural home. But the difficulty of the whole question lies in this: Are the available boarding homes ideal, and with particular reference to the Jewish problem, are our Jewish boarding homes of such a nature as to make them a powerful rival to the best institutional care that has been devised for children temporarily dependent?

"From the point of view of the child, it is a fact that certain children will never thrive and prosper in an institution, such as a certain class of children that are nervous by nature; children that are somewhat ungovernable, so-called mischievous children; some children who are semi-deficient mentally and children that come from a physically weak ancestry, etc. Even the staunchest friends of the institution plan for temporarily dependent children will have to grant this point. On the other hand, the enthusiasts of the boarding home, both Jewish and non-Jewish, will have to admit that there are certain children who need the trained skill of the pedagogue rather than the common sense treatment that the average foster mother is capable of giving.

"Finally, they will have to admit that there are numerous children, the products of Jewish institution training, who have indeed developed a high type of character and a rare degree of ability—that the Jewish institutions have a higher conception of their educational aims for their wards than some non-Jewish institutions, and that a fair majority of their alumni are successful in life.

"Until such time as it will be possible to secure a uniformly high type of boarding homes, as high a type as that of the free homes; until such time as the Jewish communities are willing to invest large sums of money to pay liberally for the maintenance and board of their dependent children, the boarding homes will remain confined to the special class of temporarily dependent children referred to above, and the institution will remain the chief child-caring agency, especially if it frees itself of the just criticisms and objections.

"The plan has not been attempted in this country of establishing scattered cottages with a higher type of women or possibly couples, to keep house in each cottage or flat for only five or six children. Such a mother or matron, or cottage couple should be given a certain allowance for the economical management of their house or flat and for the proper training to be given to the children. The supervision of all such cottages or flats could be made central. I am satisfied that ultimately such a plan, which is theoretically closely akin to the ideal

boarding house, might possibly yield better results than an elaborate cottage home institution.

"In passing over to the practical results achieved by the New York Jewish Bureau of Boarding and Placing Out Jewish Dependent Children, it will be necessary to remark that we have intentionally encroached upon the domain of the existing Jewish Orphan Asylums only in as far as we have dealt with and have assumed the responsibility for total orphans and abandoned children up to ten years of age. In regard to all other classes of children that the bureau has taken care of, it has performed an important *supplementary function* to that of the existing child-caring institutions of New York rather than a co-equal one. I mean by this that in addition to the total orphans and abandoned children up to ten years of age, the bureau has dealt with a peculiarly local situation which we have to face in New York, namely, with the problem of overcrowded Jewish institutions, with the problem of a large number of Jewish children in non-Jewish institutions, and with the problem of preventing the commitment to non-Jewish ringworm and trachoma hospitals of such children as might be safely admitted to private homes but not to institutions. Lastly, the bureau has attempted to aid the various child-caring institutions in placing in suitable boarding homes such of their inmates as were in particular need of individual attention and care, owing to such causes as nervousness, mental semi-deficiency and poor health.

"On July 1st, 1905, Miss Sara Michaels, on behalf of the joint committee on Jewish dependent children, handed over to us ninety-four cases of children that had been cared for by her in various ways, Jewish children who through her efforts had either been adopted or placed in free homes, or in boarding homes, or had been returned to their parents and relatives or had been sent to hospitals or child-caring institutions.

"On the same date, the management of the bureau was shifted to the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Orphan Asylum, with the understanding that as far as the child-placing work was concerned, it was to act under the auspices of the joint committee on Jewish dependent children, said committee consisting of representatives of the following institutions of New York: the United Hebrew Charities, the Hebrew Orphan Asylum, the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society, the Hebrew Infant Asylum, the Jewish Protectory and the Brooklyn Hebrew Orphan Asylum.

"On May 1, 1906, eleven months after the re-organization of the bureau by the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Orphan Asylum, the number of new children handled was 204. The total number of children thus handled since the inception of the bureau in 1903 is 298.

"As regards the method pursued by the bureau, all that is necessary to say in this

connection is that the most approved methods, such as are used by the Children's Aid Societies of Massachusetts and New York, were adopted with such modifications as our peculiarly Jewish conditions seemed to require.

"Of the 516 families offering boarding homes for children, there were naturally very many who applied solely with a view of paying off their debts or their mortgages on a farm, or in general, with a view of replenishing their depleted finances. A number of the applicants were recipients of charity. Every precaution was taken to exclude homes of this kind with the result that almost three hundred applications have been rejected as unfit. Of the remaining 126 boarding homes that were approved and filled within the past eleven months, there are possibly as many as twenty-five that will ultimately be turned into free homes.

"Of the one hundred applications for children to be adopted, there were several that came from physicians, lawyers and teachers, most of them, however, came from prosperous merchants. There were also a number of applications offering free homes to girls of thirteen, fourteen and fifteen years of age.

"An analysis of the 516 applications offering boarding homes to children reveals the following interesting facts:

"Two hundred and seventy-four applications were received from the Borough of Manhattan, ninety-four from the Bronx, thirty-nine from various localities in the state of New York, three from Maryland, twenty-four from Connecticut, two from North Dakota, eleven from Pennsylvania, one from Texas, twenty-four from New Jersey, four from Michigan, two from Massachusetts, three from Ohio, one from New Hampshire, one from Virginia, one from Minnesota, two from Wisconsin, two from Illinois, one from Vermont, one from Iowa.

"Similarly the one hundred applications for the adoption of children are distributed over a very wide range of localities. In order to maintain a proper system of supervision and inspection, the bureau employs a staff of three who are required to give frequent reports of the visits paid to the homes. As a consequence of such frequent visits, it was found necessary to transfer twenty-four children from one home to another."

Cottage Plan in Children's Institutions.

Rabbi Simon Peiser of Cleveland, Ohio, spoke on the group plan in the institutional care of orphan children in Germany and England.

"On the second of December, 1905," he said, "a meeting of a special committee of the city council of Berlin, Germany, was held for the purpose of discussing the proper care of orphan children. The members of the committee, learned and professional men each one of them, decided after a lengthy discus-

sion by a vote of eleven to two in favor of the placing-out system, granting however, that all institutional care of orphan children could as yet not be entirely abandoned. And as Berlin then decided, many cities had already done. Nine of the leading German cities have adopted the placing-out system and have, at least from their viewpoint, achieved great success. There are, however, a few institutions which have introduced the cottage or group plan and of these the following deserve to be mentioned:

"1. 'Das Rauhe Haus' situated at Horn near Hamburg supported by a religious order. This institution harbors twelve to fifteen boys in a cottage which is in charge of a 'brother' and two assistants. The boys are properly educated and receive also industrial training which, however, according to an American authority, is rather superficially imparted.

"2. 'Das Johannis-stift' at Plötzensee near Berlin, maintained by the same religious order. At this home there are ten families of boys, each family consisting of ten to fifteen boys and two families of girls, a family composed of ten to twelve girls. Each family has its own household, is provided with its own playground and garden, and is, in every respect separate.

"3. 'Die Brandenburgische Erziehungsanstalt' in Strausburg has six divisions of boys. From thirty-five to forty boys of different ages form one division and are in charge of a caretaker. The four divisions of girls consist of twenty-five girls each and are properly cared for by women caretakers. The education given is both mental and industrial.

"The 'Hamburger Waisenhaus' situated at Hamburg differs considerably from the institutions mentioned before. While the other homes limit their work to the care for and attention to the children given into their charge, the Hamburg orphan asylum combines the group plan with the placing-out system. It supports 2,979 children, 2,432 boys and girls are placed with families and 547 are reared and educated in the home. It insists upon a careful medical examination of its prospective wards, endeavors to learn the history of each child and his parents as far as possible, keeps all the data connected with the child correctly recorded and has grouped and housed its wards separately. There are fifteen groups, one consisting of infants, two of kindergarten children, *i. e.*, girls and boys from four to six years of age, one group of girls and boys six to eight years old (the only institution in which boys and girls of such age are permitted to remain together), three groups of girls, each group composed of the girls of two school grades, one group of confirmed girls, six groups of boys, each group representing one school grade and one group of boys who receive special educational attention.

"The educational advantages offered to the children are especially good. The home

school is equal to any elementary school and lays special stress upon the study of German and arithmetic. There are separate classes for dullards and for those children who are mentally so deficient that their progress can be but very slow. Manual training forms part of the school curriculum, and the boys are instructed in carpentry, carving, bookbinding, brushmaking, etc., and both girls and boys devote some time to garden work. The occupation of the children is varied as much as possible, as is also the diet. Four kinds of meals are prepared and served respectively to the kindergarten group, to the sick, the well and the confirmed children. The orphan asylum authorities provide the graduates with positions and assist them even after dismissal from the home.

"In England the cottage plan has found a fuller and wider development and adoption than in Germany and among the many institutions which are conducted according to the cottage plan and which have been carefully described by J. S. Ward, Jr. (cf. *Fiftieth annual report of the New York Juvenile Asylum*, p. 99), one especially deserves our careful consideration, viz., the Girls' Village at Ilford. This home for girls was founded by Dr. Bernado, the father of 'nobody's children,' who during the forty years of his activity worked and provided for over 60,000 children, and is situated in a most beautiful part of Essex county. It houses 1,200 girls in nearly sixty cottages and represents the cottage plan at its very best. The cottages are substantially built and simply but tastefully decorated. They are as homelike as any private home, and are presided over by a 'mother,' who, as the last report states, 'is usually a woman who has offered herself to our Lord in his service among the destitute children.' These women, with few exceptions, neither ask nor receive any remuneration and are only accepted after having shown their fitness for the position. The relation between 'mother' and orphan girl is that 'of loving obedience.' The girls are free and unrestrained, act natural and are in every respect like other girls brought up by their parents. In addition to a good mental education, they also receive a splendid industrial training in housework, laundrywork, dressmaking, cream and cheese making, weaving and art needlework.

"Dr. Bernado ascribed the success with which his work at Ilford has been crowned, to the change from the barrack to cottage plan and is outspokenly in favor of the latter. While there are but few nowadays who deny the justice of the claims made for the cottage plan by its advocates, yet we cannot conclude this brief account without merely hinting at two great difficulties which the cottage plan offers in America, viz., the securing of a larger number of good, fit assistants and the increased expenditure. These difficulties present a serious problem which, no doubt, will in good time find a proper solution."

Jewish Delinquent Children. "Jewish Delinquent Children" was the subject of a paper presented by Falk Younker, general secretary of the Young Men's Hebrew Association of New York.

Judge Julius Mayer, who was to speak on this topic, was detained at his home in New York.

In advocating the erection of well-regulated apartment houses where children could be brought up in more healthful and moral surroundings, Mr. Younker said:

"The many Jewish delinquent children to care for in the city of New York involves several problems, all of which must be carefully considered, if the number of delinquents is to be materially reduced. If we consider conditions in the metropolis that we have to contend with, it will not be surprising to learn that the number has grown to such large proportions. Between twenty-eight and thirty per cent. of all children brought to the children's court are Jewish. There are three and a half times as many children among this number who are the children of recently arrived immigrants as there are of native born parents. Fifteen years ago Jewish prisoners were an unknown quantity.

"It is conservatively estimated that the Jewish population of New York is 700,000. When we reflect that in a few dingy rooms large families live and frequently several boarders besides, does it need any further argument to convince us that the home life is unbearable for the children, that disease thrives, and that immorality has a breeding place amid such wretched surroundings? We must get at the root of an evil if we wish to effect a positive cure, and the root of the evil is here.

"E. R. L. Gould and Robert Fulton Cutting of New York are at the head of a movement that houses people in cities and suburban homes, in which it is claimed that out of several hundred thousand dollars collected in rents last year, less than \$100 was lost in collection, which proves that the example of well-regulated apartments conducted by a responsible superintendent and a competent janitor has the desired result. It is needless to state that such improved conditions would have the most beneficial effect upon the lives of our Jewish youth.

"The New York Truant School contains a large number of Jewish children. The number varies, but a general average would be about thirty-five per cent. of the total. The principal of this school informs me that she considers the ignorance of the parents responsible for a large number of the children committed to the school, many of whom seem to be totally ignorant of the school laws. Mothers' meetings would help to offset this problem. Such parents ought to be made to realize that a great injustice is done to the child who does not receive the necessary education for a fair start in life.

"In investigating several probation cases, I found it necessary to visit a school in the vicinity of recent construction and also one of the largest in the city. A teacher suggested that I meet the principal and obtain further information regarding conditions in the neighborhood. I was accordingly introduced to the head of the school and he informed me that it was a source of great anxiety to him that so many of the children of his school were delinquent, and that he had given some thought to this important problem. The percentage of Jewish children in this school is nearly eighty, and the delinquents were nearly all Jews. He stated that a great deal of the trouble is due to the fact that the parents of these children have a great struggle to earn a livelihood. They are at work practically all day long, and the task of preparing meals and taking care of the house is usually left to one of the older children of the family. The children are on the streets nearly all day long, finding nothing to attract them in their dingy homes, and in the streets many bad habits are formed. The temptations of the penny theatres are very alluring, and many of the attractions to be found poison their minds and characters.

"I visited several of the five-cent theatres recently, and can best describe them by stating that they are the dime novel of the stage; they consist of moving pictures which appeal to the vicious side of life and give an entirely erroneous idea of true manhood, and are demoralizing in every respect.

"The principal of a certain school said to me, 'Would it not be a fine thing if your philanthropic and educational institutions would enter into competition with these low class attractions, and offer amusements that develop the better side of children's characters and appeal to their nobler instincts?'

"We ought to gradually weed out such resorts by making a very slight charge for our places of amusement and also send free tickets to the public schools to be distributed among the best children as a reward for punctuality and good behavior.

"The religious training of the children of immigrant parents is sadly neglected. Unfortunately among many of the parents the religion is to a large extent based upon superstition and ignorance, principally due to persecution and unhappy environment, and counts for little, if anything, as a moral factor in their lives. They worship the letter of the religious law but ignore the spirit.

"It remains for our educational and philanthropic institutions to step in and teach religion as it should be taught; I mean the fundamental principles of our sacred faith which is the essence of all true religion and which teach us that it is impossible to be truly religious except religion is brought into the daily life by correct conduct and strict adherence to truth and honor. If we are tactful we can teach this without estranging the child from the parent, which

we all know must be avoided. In order to do this let us always confine ourselves to these fundamental principles and the children can be made to realize that the ritual and ceremonial part is not of paramount importance and that we must abide by the wishes of our parents, or those nearest to us, in reference to these details. My experience has taught me that what is sadly needed is the trained social worker. Let us not be carried away with the thought that college degrees are all that is necessary to fit one for this important problem. Emerson said, 'Wealth without a good heart is like an ugly beggar.' I should apply this to the social worker. Wealth of knowledge without heart and sympathy for the work will never fit anyone for a social leader.

"After considerable agitation the Jewish reformatory has now become a reality. The Jewish press stated recently that \$500,000 has been raised for this purpose and that the work of construction would be pushed forward to completion. The establishment of this institution was made absolutely necessary owing to the large number of Jewish children being committed to Catholic and other denominational institutions. Is it not timely to ask ourselves this question: What will be the condition of affairs after its doors are thrown open? Will it find that its capacity is soon taxed to the limit, as many of our institutions have found, soon after entering commodious homes? Shall we not realize that prevention is better than cure, and does it not behoove us to support philanthropic and educational endeavor, and how shall it be done? By organizing new societies? Decidedly no. Our leading educational and philanthropic institutions are having a great struggle to further their work and therefore the formation of new societies must be completely discouraged. If we are to deal with the problem intelligently, we must give all possible assistance and encouragement to the leaders of our recognized institutions. Their work must expand if existing conditions are to be improved. If they can arrange to combine in doing this work, so much the better; but if not, they should at least confer and divide up the work among themselves. Recreation centres must be established wherever most needed, and here our Jewish youth must find healthy amusement to offset the temptations of the street and at such centres moral and religious influence must be brought to bear upon them, and it is only by such endeavor and better home environment as outlined from the start that we can prevent our youth from becoming sick mentally and physically, chronic burdens to the community by reason of the fact that lessons of industry, ambition and self-reliance were lacking. We can also prevent them becoming aged in their youth by putting a check upon the tendency to lead wayward lives. We can likewise avoid their becoming infirm and crippled morally by teaching prin-

ciples of integrity and honor, and last but not least we will prevent them being objects of charity by constantly reminding them that pride and self-respect should be held in highest esteem and that when we part with these we part with our most sacred possession."

Persistence of Dependence. "Persistence of Dependence as Indicated by Relief Statistics," was the subject of a paper by Boris Bogen of Cincinnati. Dr. Bogen's paper was prepared after a statistical study of relief administered in five of the leading organizations of United Hebrew Charities. Granting that his calculations were "only approximately correct," Dr. Bogen concludes that Jewish charity organizations need not be in fear of fostering or promoting pauperism. His remarks were in part as follows:

"Our task to-day is limited to the discussion of pauperism among the Jewish poor. Evidently, for our purpose, pauperism will have to be considered in its limited specific meaning, namely: Pauperism is a subjective condition in which a person prefers to live on charity and persists in that preference, loses his respect for self-dependence and has no ambition to obtain, through his own efforts, a more comfortable life. It is a psychological condition, not necessarily however combined with poverty, for many a pauper may accumulate a fortune and lead a double life.

"The most characteristic type of Jewish pauperism is the 'schnorrer,' who seemed to fill an existing demand and was conscious of his dignified calling. These parasites of society are naturally repulsive to the normal human mind and it is no wonder that the enmity towards this class has grown into a suspicion against any one who applies for charity. The professional charity-worker is especially careful and often produces the impression of a guardian against pauperism rather than the agent for and protector of the poor.

"In order to discuss the subject of persistence of dependence as indicated by relief statistics, a subject by the way, suggested by the Conference committee and assigned to me almost against my wish, I have prepared a set of questions which were sent to different organizations. These questions were intended, mainly, to indicate persistence of dependence as expressed in the number and character of applications for relief for the last five years. Special attention was given to 1900 as a year of comparative prosperity and 1903 as a year of somewhat unfavorable industrial conditions.

"Of the fifty organizations to which these inquiries were addressed only fifteen responded. Six expressed regret that they could not be of assistance as no records have been kept, four gave answers to but a few questions, and only five gave satisfactory and more or less valuable material. In addi-

tion to these, the statistical data as found in the annual reports of the different organizations have also been utilized for the purpose.

"The study shows, first of all, that the number of those who applied for charity in 1903, the first time, reappear on the list in 1905 only in a very small proportion. This proportion decreases materially if we take for comparison the applicants who applied first in 1900. The statistical data can be summarized as follows: The number of applications first made in 1903, which reappear on the list of 1905—in Philadelphia 7.7%, in New York, 8.7%, in Cincinnati, 23%, in Detroit, 20%. The number of applications first made in 1900 which reappear on the list of 1905—Philadelphia 5.8%, New York 7.7%, Cincinnati 11%. It is remarkable also that the number of new applications, notwithstanding the constant immigration, differs but slightly from year to year.

"The surprisingly small proportion of recently arrived immigrants who apply for charity is also worth mentioning. In New York of the total number of new applications in the year 1905, only 34.9% were from persons who had been in this country less than one year. They represented only 4.8% of the total number of immigrants who arrived in New York city with the intention of remaining there. In Philadelphia we find that, of the total number of new applications in 1905, only 14.6% were from persons who had been in the country less than six months. This certainly shows, at least as far as statistical data of relief organizations is concerned, that the newly arrived immigrant does not possess the tendency to become dependent.

"In the annual report of 1905 of the United Hebrew Charities of New York city, we find the following statement: 'Only three per cent. of those who originally applied in the years '94-'95 asked for assistance this year, but 5.1% of applicants between the years 1894 and 1899, 7.5% of applicants between the years 1899 and 1903. 14.3% of those who applied in the year 1903-4 are applicants for assistance this year. 7.3% of the total applicants since 1894 were brought to the society's notice the last fiscal year. Of the applicants who applied originally between 1874 and 1894, 450 families applied this year.'

"While in all the cities under our consideration the absence of persistence in dependence is conspicuous, we notice however a difference as to the existing proportion between new and recurrent cases. This leads us to the subject of adequacy of relief in the different localities. When we think that the United Hebrew Charities of New York makes a per capita expenditure of a little more than \$6.00, Chicago, \$10.00, Philadelphia, \$33.00, etc., we can justly say that even in the selection of places of residence the poor must have good fortune. One thing however is true and we may state it without going into deep mathematical calculations, that the

charitable organizations of the larger cities are unable to foster pauperism, were it even in existence. The story of the temperance union that engaged an inveterate drunkard to serve as a concrete illustration of inebriety, and was compelled later on to discharge him for lack of funds to keep the example in proper shape, seems to be quite analogous with the position of the charitable institutions of the large cities.

"S. C. Lowenstein, discussing the subject of adequacy of relief at the last conference, said, 'May we not ask whether New York's limited relief has discouraged applications and forced the applicants to greater endeavors to become self-supporting? Or has its manifest inadequacy prevented those who really may have needed assistance but felt that it could not be obtained, and so sought it in other quarters? Whatever may be the case, inadequate relief cannot be judiciously advocated and the cities that pride themselves with a low per capita expenditure in granting relief are liable to go on to the extreme detriment to the community. This is especially evident when we consider the causes of distress as indicated by statistical data.

"The United Hebrew Charities of New York in 1905 show cash relief disbursements as follows:

28.3%	given to widows and children.
14.6%	" " deserted women.
17.2%	" " consumptives.
21.2%	" " sufferers from other forms of illness.
3.7%	" " applicants over 60 years of age.
15.2%	" " for other causes.

"It is self-evident that in every city the largest part of relief is given to applicants who are not only worthy but to whom perforce, by reason of their circumstances, aid must positively be given in the form of material relief. Another condition as to the number of times applications were received from the same parties can be seen from the following table, deducted from the data given in the annual report of 1903 of the United Hebrew Charities of Chicago. Of the total number of applicants for the year 1903—

Parties assisted once.....	63%
" " twice	25%
" " three times ..	5%
" " four times ...	2%
	— 100%

"In conclusion, to sum up our arguments we wish to say, that while the material available is not very extensive in quantity, while all the calculations are only approximately correct, for the facts themselves are not accurately recorded, still there is no doubt that Jewish charity organizations need not be in fear of fostering or promoting pauperism."

**State Aid
for Sectarian
Institutions.**

"I believe that a clear distinction can be made between sectarian work which should not receive state aid and that which should be so supported," said Professor Morris Loeb of New York University, in speaking of sectarian institutions and governmental aid. Institutions maintained for the benefit of the state, like the army, navy, prisons and public schools, should be strictly non-sectarian; institutions maintained for the protection of the individual can very well be sectarian. He maintained that it is perfectly possible to conduct our public schools on a strictly non-sectarian basis. The experience of European countries has proved this he said, even where religious teaching is supposed to be a requisite element of the curriculum.

"The theory that teachings in a school must necessarily inculcate every form of ethical, moral and religious instruction," he continued, "is unfortunately sufficiently rampant in this country to impair seriously the efficiency of the institutions themselves. It is not only likely to bring other qualifications than teaching to the foreground in the selection of the instructors, but it is also likely to promote attempts to introduce subjects into the curriculum which are so loosely connected with the essential branches of an elementary education that the child is confused and one of the chief objects of schooling—systematic thinking—is seriously obstructed. I suppose that a time will come when the right of even the school child to its own individuality will be recognized, and when it will be deemed just as criminal to attempt forcing into its mind dogmas, whether religious, political or even scientific, under the guise of elementary instruction as we now consider it wrong to force political or religious views upon a man as a condition for granting him the necessities of life in the moment of direst need.

"The state stands however in an entirely different relation to those who have become its wards, not for the public benefit but by reason of their personal disability. * * *

"When President Roosevelt the other day issued a special proclamation not to discriminate against the Chinese sufferers from the San Francisco earthquake, many must have felt that things had come to an awful pass if humanity could not be trusted to take care of the unfortunate without discrimination of race or creed and I think the imputation justly resented by the citizens of California.

"But is it not almost as bad to suggest that, at a time when necessity compels a man to seek admission to a hospital, he should be forced to divest himself of all his individuality and put himself absolutely in the hands of the institution, even in matters that have in themselves no concern with his sickness? Is it not rather true, at such times when his sensibilities are perhaps over accentuated, everything should be done to soothe them; and that, if he has any peculiar views, whether religious or otherwise, which

do not interfere with the happiness of his neighbors, these should be at least respected so long as he has not the full power to take care of himself?

"Supposing that a Jew falls sick while sojourning in a city in which he has no co-religionists; he will, of course, seek a general hospital and his treatment will be so humane and his feelings will be so respected that he will have no fault to find; but should he learn that there existed in that same community hundreds who could have readily provided him with those particular spiritual comforts which he naturally had to forego in the general hospital, his feelings would be of a different kind. The mere fact that a man can exist without certain comforts is in itself no argument for depriving him of them. Similarly, the possibility of properly treating people of all kinds and creeds in a general institution does not, in itself, preclude that some of the finer sensibilities of the patient may there be disregarded. The higher ethical standpoint seems to me to be represented by the existence of the sectarian hospital, old folks' home or orphan asylum, in which the inmate is not only granted an impassive liberty of conscience, but also enabled to live as nearly as possible in consonance with those customs which his traditions prescribe.

"Leaving aside all questions of religious prejudice or propaganda, it seems to the best interest of the state that as large a percentage as possible of the population should interest itself in philanthropic work and there can be no doubt whatsoever that many more are likely to enter into work of this character, if they feel a natural call to look after people of their own class, race or faith; just as family ties are supposed to lay more duties upon the individual than those of mere humanity. A state institution therefore in order to achieve the best results for persons of various nationalities or faiths, will probably be forced to select its employees with due regard to these principles; the state institution, instead of becoming non-sectarian, would become poly-sectarian.

"If then the American conditions will naturally require a recognition of the different sects in the administration of public institutions, what principle is violated if the same sects are recognized in the management of private institutions? The private charitable institution, if properly managed, is certainly at least as efficient and economical as the public one. Governmental inspection, such as is provided in New York by the State Board of Charities, can eliminate those enterprises which are fraudulent and can check abuses even more efficiently in private than in public institutions. Our governmental machinery is so complex that a state governor can readily nullify the influence of the supervising board over the executive management of state institutions. But it is much less conceivable that the private charity shall similarly escape the results of unfavorable criticism. It seems to me, there-

fore, a most ideal plan that institutions should be managed by those who have a direct benevolent interest in them, but that the supervision should rest with the state; this, I think, is a truism in charity work.

"It must, of course, be understood that I do not plead for state aid for sectarian institutions because they are sectarian; I think it the duty of those interested in them to provide all proper facilities out of their own means; the buildings, at least, and the general administration should be in the charge of the private supporters. But if the state then contracts to pay for the maintenance of the individual inmate no more than it would cost to take care of him in the public institution, it is difficult to point out wherein the public interest is suffering any detriment. From the point of view of the taxpayer, there is probably an advantage, since he is not called upon to contribute toward the construction and equipment of the home."

Homes for the Aged.

Michael Heymann of New Orleans presented a paper on "Homes for the Aged and

Infirm," stating that all the trouble and restlessness in homes for the aged was due to the idleness of the inmates. Mr. Heymann advocated the introduction of practical occupations into such institutions. Continuing he said:

"Nothing prevents old people from planting a few flowers of their choice, even a few vegetables and trees, if our institutions will be located in the country—and the unrest spoken of will stop. Light, love, trees and flowers, health and comfort, and a little work should be the pillars upon which the homes for the aged and infirm must rest.

"Libraries and amusements are great needs, and should be provided in a most intelligent manner. No libraries with a tremendous intellectual apparatus should be installed. We need for the aged people some daily papers, magazines and books which suit their taste.

"Occasional entertainments are of great value, tending toward good government and happy life. Above all, music is a great factor—good music, well rendered."

The Sanatorium—New Fields of Work.

In speaking on the management of sanatoriums for consumptives, Alfred Muller, secretary of the National Jewish Hospital for Consumptives of Colorado, raised the question whether the great hospitals for tuberculosis patients do not put too narrow an interpretation on the expenditure of their funds. Granting that the great purpose of the sanatorium is the cure of tuberculosis, Mr. Muller advocated a broader field of work that would include the establishment of trade schools within the sanatoriums and the collection of adequate statistics. In part he said:

"One of the great problems—one with us in Colorado in the institution which I have

the honor to represent, the National Jewish Hospital for Consumptives—one of the great problems is that of finding for and giving to the patient a new trade; of finding a new calling for a new man and lead him into new fields and a different occupation. We in our Denver institution, have had in the past several years, as part of our institutional management, an employment committee to procure for these men and women, work consistent with their condition. This committee has done and is doing splendid work, but in Colorado (and I take it this holds true in other localities), the right employment for these new men and women, as we may aptly call them, is scarce, and the wages at a minimum. We are therefore now evolving plans for a trade school within the institution, to teach him an industry which he can follow after his discharge, and one, the strain of which his physique can stand—which will give him the opportunity to take up again his God-given right to labor for himself and the loved ones dependent upon him, which will render him, not a mere pittance thrown at him almost as a charity offering, but yield the dignity of a man's return for man's labor.

"The management further believes it to be not only an industrial necessity for these stricken ones, but a physical benefit to lead their sorrow-burdened minds into new fields; to teach the untaught immigrant who forms the greatest percentage of inmates in the National Jewish Hospital for Consumptives, the afflicted children sent there for treatment, and of necessity deprived of their usual schooling, the rudimentary English branches. These classes are conducted in the open air as our trade schools will be, the eternal sunshine of Colorado making this arrangement not only possible but pleasurable. Thus far this latter school has been experimental only and carried on by volunteer teachers, not always to be depended upon. We of Denver believe the experiment to be a success and the school a necessity, and hope that at the next annual meeting of our institution, the national board will agree with the Denver board of managers, that this work should be permanent and conducted by professional teachers. To the world at large the sanatorium has one great purpose—the cure of tuberculosis, to test methods for effectiveness, to send back into the hum of life the men and the women and the children educated not alone to combat the disease in themselves, but to be prepared to teach others to fight the white plague. In a way we have hospital statistics, that is we have records of cases and interesting deductions, facts of prime importance in the eradication of the disease, but nothing uniform and nothing concerted.

"Each hospital or sanatorium I find, works out its immediate and superficial problems without any reference to concerted effort. A thousand tremendous questions concerned with the eradication of the disease are tentatively approached but the greatest method

of all, that of working on the same general lines always, seems utterly impossible of realization. The result is that the funds expended by our sanatoriums in the war of so-called research brings us the minimum of good, for whatever is done is individual—spasmodic.

"I believe that it is the duty of our sanatoriums to expend at least a portion of their funds in the most painstaking research into the lives of the patients, into the surroundings in which the contagion came upon them, into the diseases of kin. And these researches must be thorough and constant. They must be on the same general lines in every sanatorium in the world.

"We do not realize how meagre our statistical information is. Taken together we have made no very decided advance since the days of Hippocrates who knew definitely the proportion of mortality to age in victims of tuberculosis.

"Statistics that cover millions of cases are what we want—statistics that will convince people that by proper precautions this great danger can be reduced to a minimum. The peril has tremendous proportions. The remedy must have like proportions.

"Instead of a record of 200 patients on some vital point, I would have the record of 2,000,000 patients. In place of sporadic investigation I would have it so general, so perfect, so effective that the deductions would awaken the world to a realization of its peril.

"Statistics of hungering school children brought all England to its feet in shame and indignation. And statistics properly compiled by our sanatoria will awaken even the submerged world to the necessity of better, cleaner living. Why, the little that has been done in the way of concerted health board work has had its effect in reducing the death rate from consumption. How much more effective will be the mighty hand of a thousand sanatoriums. The educational work that is now being done under the auspices of the National Society for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis is good.

"In Germany they have at least made a beginning. The state insurance companies are themselves paying for the erection and the care of sanatoriums, finding it cheaper to search out the disease in the earliest possible stages when it can be thoroughly eradicated, to restore the policy-holder to an insurance-paying basis, than to be mulcted for heavy sick benefits during a lingering illness in the last stages of the disease, and for the full life insurance afterwards. How well this principle applies to our local charity fields. Think of the saving to our relief societies all over the country if a similar plan were adopted here—if in addition to proposed registration, excellent as far as it goes, compulsory inspection for tuberculosis be had in every home in the land."

Industrial School for Girls.

Bertha Gelder of Birmingham, Alabama, urged the need for an industrial school for Jewish girls and suggested the mountainous district of Alabama as an ideal location. She said that the school built on the cottage plan, could be enlarged as demand increases, and serve as a social centre for an industrial agricultural farm to grow up around it. If the need presents itself, it should keep open doors for the instruction of the boys and children of the colony.

"Land can be acquired," she continued, "in the most fertile regions of Alabama, near railroad facilities, on the average of \$12.50 an acre. Timber being close at hand, the cottages needed could be constructed at a cost of \$2,500 to \$3,000. Simplicity in all things being a need, an outlay of \$20,000 to \$30,000 would be sufficient to acquire an area of sixty acres of land, to build two cottages, start with a faculty of four teachers, and to accommodate, clothe, feed and instruct at least fifty girls for one year."

Baron de Hirsch Fund.

"The Baron de Hirsch Fund" was the subject assigned to Eugene S. Benjamin of New York. His paper follows in part:

"The Baron de Hirsch Fund was founded in 1891 by the Baron Maurice de Hirsch, who gave to a committee of nine gentlemen and their successors the sum of \$2,400,000 in trust for the purposes mentioned in the deed. The original trustees were Myer S. Isaacs, Jesse Seligman, Jacob H. Schiff, Oscar S. Straus, Henry Rice, James H. Hoffman, Julius Goldman, Mayer Sulzberger and William B. Hackenburg.

"In a word the purpose of the donor was to assist emigrants and establish them as useful members of the community in which they settled. This purpose, however, has often been misunderstood and from time to time in the public press, the Fund has been spoken of as a fund to assist emigration. Such a statement of our purpose is entirely unwarranted and absolutely contrary to fact. The Fund has never undertaken to promote or assist immigration. We deal only with the immigrant after he has arrived in this country. After he has once reached the United States he becomes a proper subject for our assistance and advice. A careful examination of the deed of trust will show that such was the wish and instruction of the donor, and in administering their trust the trustees have strictly adhered to this course. The Fund, this established by the Baron de Hirsch, was subsequently very largely increased by a donation made by the Baroness de Hirsch in 1898 and still further by a bequest received under her will.

"A portion of the principal was expended at once, under the provisions of the deed of trust in the purchase of land and the erection of buildings at Woodbine; the balance of the principal of the Fund has been kept intact by the trustees and now amounts to \$3,800,000, and only the income thereof is

used. This income, however, is by no means sufficient to defray the cost of the work undertaken by the trustees and we are only able to continue our many activities through the generous financial assistance annually rendered us by the Jewish Colonization Association of Paris.

"During the first two years of his stay in this country, the immigrant is regarded by us as in some respects our ward, and is entitled to our help. Upon his arrival at Ellis Island, an agent of the United Hebrew Charities, who is paid by us, meets the immigrant and gives him such information, advice and other assistance as the circumstances of the case may require. If the immigrant is a woman arriving here unattended, an agent of the Council of Jewish Women, for whose services we likewise make the necessary financial provision, looks after her welfare.

"When the new arrival through illness or other misfortune, fails to succeed, he is furnished with the necessary tools or implements of his trade, employment is found for him, a trade taught to him or temporary financial assistance given him.

"In New York city this assistance is given through the agency of the United Hebrew Charities; and in Philadelphia and Baltimore through branch committees of the fund, to all of whom we supply the funds necessary to do this work. To a smaller extent funds are also supplied to Boston for similar work.

"The following summary of the work done through the local branch of the Fund in Philadelphia in the year 1905 will give a fair idea of the varied character of the assistance thus given. In that year tools were supplied to mechanics and others in 255 cases, 62 were taught trades and occupations; 97 were assisted in business; 22 were assisted in support while working; and 8 were furnished with transportation to other points. In addition to the foregoing, employment was found for 165 others.

"To Americanize the immigrant the educational work of the society is conducted. In New York city the Educational Alliance, through funds furnished by us, maintains day classes for children and adults, where the pupils are kept for a period ranging from three months to a year and a half. More than 850 pupils passed through these day classes in 1905, of whom 570 were turned over to the public schools and 105 others received their working papers. In the same way a night school is maintained, supplementing the public night schools, and is kept open from April to September, when the public night schools are closed. This night school is attended by adults ranging in years from seventeen to fifty. The number applying this year was 1,600, of whom only 500 could be admitted but additional classes will be opened to accommodate 300 more; ninety per cent. of those enrolled have been less than four months in the country.

"In Brooklyn we aid the Hebrew Educational Society; in Philadelphia the Hebrew

Educational Society; in Pittsburg the Columbian Council and in St. Louis the Jewish Educational Society, all of whom maintain classes similar to those conducted by the Educational Alliance in New York city.

"A very important feature of our educational work is the Baron de Hirsch Trade School in East Sixty-fourth street, New York city. This is a fully equipped and well-housed school for the teaching of trades. With a course of instruction of five and one-half months, it fits boys to qualify as helpers in certain mechanical trades. The trades taught are those of carpenter, machinist, plumber, electrical working and house and sign painting. The capacity of the school is taxed to its utmost, and its success is shown by the fact that at our last semi-annual entrance date, there were 711 applicants, while the size of the building will only permit us to admit 150.

"In the fall of 1891 the trustees purchased a tract of land of over 5,000 acres in southern New Jersey where the town of Woodbine was established. On this tract a town site was laid out, and the surrounding country was set apart for farms. To-day it is a self-governing and self-respecting community with about 2,000 inhabitants, a large proportion of whom rely for their subsistence on the several factories which have been built and established there through the agency of the fund. The pay rolls of these factories amount to about \$150,000 per annum, and the average wages paid to adults and minors compare favorably with those paid in any town of similar size in this country.

"Most of the heads of families own their own houses, for the fund has made it possible for a man to acquire title to his home by a monthly payment, amounting, in most cases, to one-half of what he would pay for three rooms in a crowded tenement house in New York city. These small homes are in the majority of cases, clean, well-kept and have small gardens attached. In the year 1903 the town received its charter as an independent community, and is governed by its own mayor and common council. Every municipal office is filled by a Jew, and the affairs of the town have always been well and economically administered.

"In south Jersey, about twenty miles from Woodbine, but nearer to Philadelphia, are the other so-called south Jersey colonies of Alliance, Rosenhayn, Carmel, Norma and Brotmanville, which were established in the '80's and '90's by various philanthropic societies. Since 1900 the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society has undertaken the duty of bettering the physical and moral condition of these early settlers. We have established several modern factories; maintained night schools and provided scholarships in high schools in neighboring cities for pupils of promise; co-operated in building a canning factory; provided a resident director of social and educational work, who has done and is doing much to elevate the general moral tone of the community; pro-

vided free lecture courses, built social halls, subsidized resident physicians; established libraries, and have in numerous instances made loans to the farmers of these communities.

"I do not desire to be understood as advocating the establishment of other colonies on the plan of Woodbine. The amount of money, time and energy spent in bringing this industrial settlement to its present condition is out of all proportion to the number of our co-religionists who were benefitted thereby—this same amount of money spent in removal work or in building up a farming class among the Jews would produce better, surer and more far-reaching results.

"The founders of the Fund were most anxious to encourage the Jewish immigrant in the pursuit of agriculture. To do this we have established the agricultural school at Woodbine, and the so-called test farm at Kings Park, L. I.

"The Woodbine agricultural school was established to teach agriculture to boys. It was founded in 1895 and seeks to give a boy such an amount of technical education in the school and practical training on the school-farm, as will qualify him for filling a position as a helper on a farm, with the promise held out to him of assistance in the purchase of a farm of his own when he reaches the proper age and has demonstrated his ability to manage it.

"The school has been to a large extent an experiment, and from time to time we have changed the curriculum as suggested by experience. The present requirements for admission are, that the applicant should be about the age of eighteen, should be physically capacitated for the work of farming, and should have an elementary knowledge of English. The student is given one year of practical and technical education, and then secured a position on a farm, and if he retains his position and sticks to the work and desires a further instruction of a technical or practical character, he may take an advanced course the following winter.

"An equally interesting experiment is the work of the test farm at Kings Park, L. I. A tract of 500 acres of good land was purchased there and equipped with modern buildings and farming implements, and houses erected for twelve families. We locate at this test farm each year about twelve families. We provide the heads of the families with work as farm laborers, teaching them American methods of agriculture. We pay them daily wages, out of which they provide for the support of their families and pay rent for the houses which they occupy. We also allot to each one of them a small plot of ground for raising the garden truck needed for the use of his family.

"All the agricultural work which I have described is conducted under the auspices of the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society. In 1900 we found that our agricultural, industrial and removal work had become so extended that it was necessary to found a separate society to take charge

of these activities; hence the establishment of that society, which is maintained partly by the funds donated by the Baron de Hirsch fund, and partly by contribution from the Jewish Colonization of Paris.

"A very large part of the funds of this society is used in making loans to farmers. These loans are of such a character that they could not possibly be obtained from any other source, and therefore aid and encourage men with limited means to become farmers.

"The sum of \$500 is ordinarily the smallest amount that a man should have who wishes to establish himself as a successful farmer, but the society makes a great many loans to men with less means than this when in its judgment the individual has a good chance for success.

"In the year 1905, 947 individual applications were made for assistance to become farmers. Of that number 416 possessed \$200 or more, sixty possessed less than \$200 and 230 had no means whatever. It will be seen by this that 476 men were anxious to become farmers who did not have the means sufficient in our opinion to undertake the work, and in most cases these people were advised to continue at their present vocations until they had amassed a sum of at least \$500.

"To what extent these farmers succeed is best shown by the payments they make in the reduction of the principal of their loan. Of the loans made in

1900, 28%	of the principal has been returned,
1901, 46%	" " " " "
1902, 34%	" " " " "

"On the loans made later than these dates, the date of re-payment has not commenced in a large majority of cases, so that the figures are not of any value. The farmers meet their interest obligation with great promptness, and the average delinquency of interest on six years business is only 8/10 of one per cent.

"The records of the society show that there are 1,382 Jewish farmers of whom we have cognizance in one way or another, with a total farming population of 7,491 souls, cultivating 125,434 acres, with a real estate value of \$2,170,850, and with a personal property value of \$545,799.

"This by no means represents the total Jewish farming population of the United States and Canada, because from experience we believe that there are just as many more of whom we have no records.

"In addition to this we make home building loans to dwellers in small cities and villages who wish to acquire their own homes, and in the past six years eighty-three of these loans have been made."

Agricultural Settlement at Arpin, Wis.

Agricultural settlements for the Jews was the topic for the Tuesday afternoon session. The discussion was opened by A. W. Rich, of Milwaukee, who outlined the successful work of the trial settlement at Arpin, Wis. His paper follows in part:

"The year 1901 witnessed on a large scale the exodus of Jewish people from Roumania, owing to the repressive and tyrannical laws of that government—laws which virtually deprived the Jew of the means of a livelihood by debarring him from every reasonable privilege of a citizen as well as from the pursuit of almost every honest and suitable employment. This deplorable condition, the outgrowth purely of religious persecution, aroused the utmost sympathy of Jews residing in various civilized countries, and led to certain ameliorative measures in behalf of the unfortunate victims. Thus, through the aid of the munificent legacy of that nature's nobleman, the lamented Baron De Hirsch, thousands of these refugees were aided not only in finding homes in this blessed country of ours, but also in obtaining employment whereby to maintain themselves and their families.

"After the first one hundred thousand or more of these poor immigrants had landed in the city of New York, thoughtful and benevolent minds began to realize the imperative necessity of distributing at least a portion of these newcomers into various parts of this country, in order to avoid such serious consequences as might result from the congestion in the already thickly-populated districts of the seaport cities.

"For this special purpose, the Industrial Removal Office was established in New York city under the guidance of that indefatigable and zealous worker, Cyrus L. Sulzberger, and through a visit from him, Milwaukee was among the first cities to enlist in the work of removal, and records show that in a period of about two and a half years the Industrial Aid Society of that city placed at work, both at skilled and unskilled trades, nearly 800 of the more recent immigrants, and later on united many of these men with their families.

"After considerable correspondence and several conferences with members of the executive committee of that society, I was finally authorized to organize the Milwaukee Agricultural Society, whose duty it should be to undertake the work as outlined and to act as trustee in its behalf. A moderate appropriation was then made by the New York society enabling us to give my plan a trial.

"In my original proposition to the committee I had planned for a settlement of eighteen families, assigning to each forty acres of land; and since the tract selected which I considered ideal for that purpose contained 720 acres and was offered to me at a much more advantageous price per acre than the same could have been purchased at if provision was made for only seven families (280 acres), I assumed personally the responsibility in the purchase of the additional 440 acres so as to enable me eventually to carry out my original plan, calculating that if the experiment with the seven families proved to be satisfactory, the New York society would doubtless deem it advisable to

make a further appropriation which would enable me to complete under its auspices the settlement of eighteen families.

"The first of December, 1905, marked the first anniversary of that settlement, as on that date in 1904, five settlers including their wives and twenty-three children arrived at Arpin, via Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul Railroad, with two carloads containing their household goods with few farm implements, and during the subsequent week the two remaining families including eight children followed, thus completing our first quota.

"The so-called Arpin settlement of Jewish farmers, now consisting of fourteen families, is located in Wood county, Wisconsin, adjoining the village of Arpin, 150 miles northwest of the city of Milwaukee, and can be reached by three lines of railroads. The village proper has a population of about 200 souls and contains two stores, a railroad station, a public school where the children of our settlers together with other children of the village and neighborhood receive English instruction in all branches.

"The village itself was established about twelve years ago by Arpin Bros. Lumber Co., which bought large tracts of land in that county for the purpose of converting the heavy hard-wood timber contained upon the land into lumber; with that view the company located a large saw-mill there which furnished employment to a large number of men, and for their accommodation quite a number of moderate frame houses were built and later a public hall, church and a school house.

After several years' work the most desirable timber suitable for lumber having been removed, and there being no further use for the saw-mill, it was transferred to another locality, followed by most of the employees of the company, except those that preferred to engage in farming instead of continuing to work in a saw-mill.

"Thus it happened that at the time the Arpin settlement was formed (November, 1904), that several of the houses in the village were vacant.

"In the month of August we began to build dwelling houses, the plans for these having been made to suit conditions and at the same time the needs of the settlers. We have at the present time upon our land six substantial frame houses and two log houses, besides a number of small barns, sheds, etc. Each family has also been supplied with one or two cows (according to the number of children in the family), a horse, wagon, and necessary implements for clearing and cultivating the land. Incidentally, it may be stated that our settlers now have cleared on an average about ten acres of land and hope to raise a fair crop of potatoes, corn, pickles and other vegetables in addition to sufficient hay to feed their stock during the winter, and if this season proves fairly favorable, the proceeds of that part of the crop that they may be able to market should make

them absolutely self-sustaining; whereas the sale of the cordwood, which has been cut during the past winter, should enable them to make the first payment of interest on their indebtedness to the association.

"The 'probation feature' of our plan has already proven to be a good precautionary measure, since it enabled me, without any conflict, to remove three of the original families, who were becoming a disturbing element in the settlement, because they were denied certain extravagant requests. One of these removed men, within three months after leaving Arpin, begged to be reinstated, and offered, in fact, twenty-five dollars to one of our influential settlers to prevail upon me to allow him and his family to return. Within four weeks, however, after the three families left, I had at least ten applicants; among those were several relatives of the original and enthusiastic settlers, desiring to locate on the vacated premises.

"Our settlers abstain from work on the Sabbath and on that day as well as on all holidays hold religious services, including the reading of the Sephar Torah (the Sacred Scroll) with which I presented them. That this adds a great deal to their feeling of contentment need hardly be emphasized. Quite frequently, also, and especially during the holidays, they also have in attendance at their services co-religionists from some of the surrounding villages. And as soon as circumstances will allow they hope to have in their midst a Melamed, one capable not only of instructing their children in Hebrew, but of performing other religious functions."

Agriculture and the Jewish Poor. Advocating the efficacy of "taking an acre and living on it" as an effective cure for many of the evils of city poverty, Rabbi A. R. Levy of Chicago maintained that such a message was particularly applicable to the Jewish poor.

"However beneficial farming must prove to the poor in general," he said, "it is exceptionally valuable as an occupation for our Jewish poor. For them it is not only the best, but perhaps the only means wherewith they may successfully combat against their poverty. For, let it be stated, while the evils of poverty are everywhere the same, and the same means will contest them everywhere, still there is a sufficient difference between the sources of the poverty among the non-Jewish poor, and the sources from which springs poverty among Jews, to justify the claim that not all remedies are alike applicable to stem the evils of poverty among Jews and non-Jews, though these evils are practically alike in their consequences.

"It is generally held that the poverty of the largest number among the poor is due to, and is the result of aversion to work, shiftlessness, improvidence, lack of ambition, drunkenness, etc. Accepting the correctness of this theory, we should indeed have very

little poverty among our immigrant Jews from Russia, Galicia and Roumania. Whatever the shortcomings of these people, it must be admitted that their capacity for industry and economy can never be overestimated. Their frugality and thrift is justly proverbial, and their ambition to rise in the scale of social standing is so pronounced, that it is steadily being used by those ill-disposed to them as an argument to justify their ostracism from certain circles. Nor is the vice of drunkenness common among these Jews. But, in spite of these facts, who will deny that poverty is rampant in the midst of these people? Or, does it require the discerning power of the scientist and the keen insight of the student to detect the signs of poverty, and to recognize the vice and evil founded in misery and want, among the population of the congested Jewish district in our larger cities? Surely not. This very conference—a conference convened for the express purpose of considering how to meet the situation among the Jewish poor in our cities, proves the contrary. What, then, is the cause of the distress among the Jewish poor?

"It is not difficult to discover the material cause. At the root of the evil is not a malevolent tendency, but a deplorable predicament. Not mental perversion and obstinacy, make up the prime cause of the distress among our immigrant Jews. What they suffer from is physical ailment. The pernicious laws and the wicked exclusions under which these people and their ancestors were forced to live for centuries, have so shaped them physically that they are, at their coming to this land of stern activity, not best fitted to cope with the new conditions as they find them here in America.

"Undoubtedly more than one reason can be advanced for the economic disparities and for the apparent discrimination against Jewish laborers in the lines of the larger industries. However, the fact is potent and clear that the physical condition of a very large number of our immigrant Jews excludes them from the rank of those who may find employment and hold it at the important industries. There are hundreds, if not thousands, among our immigrant Jews who are willing to try, and actually do try themselves at the work in the foundry and rolling-mill, who attempt the handling of freight in railroad and steamship warehouses, and who engage in all manner of labor where exceptional physical strength and endurance is required.

"Unlike the great industries, the sweatshop and the cigar factory are pre-eminently institutions of 'piece work.' The individual worker can here easily be accommodated to work fourteen, and if it need be, sixteen hours daily, in order to eke out a bare existence, if he is unable to accomplish it in ten hours. It matters not how we consider the institution where such dreadful slavery is tolerated, the immigrant Jew views it

from a different side. To him it is the generous benefactor that shields him against starvation. It is an exceptional advantage that it offers the feeble but willing to work newcomer, and he is, therefore, not slow in helping to multiply these institutions. Unfortunately, our immigrant Jew becomes the victim of his own creation. The affliction which suffering in his native home has forced into his nature, finds in the sweatshop a most favorable atmosphere for its full development.

"Nor is the apparent delinquency, and the indifference to environment so glaringly noticeable in the homes of our Jewish poor always due to willful negligence. The wives and mothers in the ghetto suffer from lack of energy, an affliction contracted in the stifling atmosphere of a life of inactivity to which their ancestors have been condemned, and in which they themselves were reared in 'Darkest Russia.' The removal from the Russian 'Pale of Settlement' to the American ghetto does not spell out freedom to them. The surroundings as they find them in the ghetto are not well fitted to arouse them from the lethargical state and stimulate them to useful activity.

"Again, on account of the physical incapacity of many upon whom devolves the duty of supporting the family, children are the bread-winners for an abnormally large number of households in the ghetto. This, in not few cases, affects the tie of family relation, weakening, if, in fact, not wholly destroying the filial respect so essential to the welfare of the household.

"In the face of these facts, the question of how to relieve the situation in the ghetto finds its true and best answer in the slogan already quoted, 'Take an acre and live on it.' Air, fresh and plenty of it, is the first condition of the remedy to be applied to offset the evils as we find them in the ghetto. The free and open country is where our immigrant Jew from Russia and Roumania will find the richest boon that can fall to his lot in America.

"Nor is the potency of farm life less effective in regulating the household duties and in enforcing their execution. Next to the fact that the pure, fresh air of the country, and the proper wholesome food will soon mend the shattered nerves of the wife and mother, bringing her to a state of health where exertion in useful activity is a natural manifestation, her responsibilities are, in the farm home, so clearly defined that any evasion of duty will only help to uncover her guilt. Meal time, bed, and rising time, come on the farm with a stronger demand for the attention due them, than in the city. The turning of night into day is a feat not so easily accomplished on the farm as it is in the city. The failure to prepare the meal in due time cannot be atoned for through the medium of the 'delicatessen store' around the corner. The sheer certainty of the pun-

ishment that will on the farm follow every neglect of duty, must tend to correct the error and stop the folly of delinquency.

"As to family relations, rural life, especially the life on the isolated farm, has a decided tendency to strengthen the ties that bind husband and wife, and parents and children in family affection. The alienation between parents and children we find among the city-poor is rarely found among farmers. Whatever the ability or inability of the father may be regarding the work on the farm, his supremacy in the household is never questioned. The very law of the land, which regulates possession of the soil, upholds the father in his position and helps preserve the dignity of the home, should there be a tendency in the children to disgrace it.

"There are other and possibly greater advantages, than those mentioned, farm life secures for the immigrant Jew. My experience with Jewish farmers for more than fifteen years has forced this conviction upon me. I have watched and studied the changes for the better that come into the lives of the poor, down-trodden immigrant Jews when they are removed from the city to the farm, and I am prompted to state that agriculture holds the key to the solution of the problems that confront the Jewish poor in America. In fact, I am tempted to say that agriculture is the panacea for all the ills of the American ghetto."

**Opportunities
in the South
for the
Immigrant.**

Dr. I. L. Leucht of New Orleans, told of the agricultural opportunities of the South for the immigrant. His

paper follows in part:

"The South has had a long and hard struggle to break the 'invidious bar' of a world-wide mistrust of her climate. Her sincere ante-bellum belief that African slavery was an indispensable necessity, not only to her prosperity, but her very material existence has clung to her like the shirt of Nessus, and has only lately been torn from her.

"Within the last fifteen or twenty years, colonization in the South has been very rapid and large and it may be said to be strongly representative of all the white races of the earth. To particularize, somewhat: In North Carolina, a large body of Germans, a colony of Waldensians from the Italian Alps, several colonies of farmers from the north-west of the United States have found homes; in South Carolina, many French, Irish, English, Swiss and German settlers have found homes also; several colonies of northern and western people have bought large tracts of land in Georgia; many Italians have settled in Florida and Louisiana; several Swiss, German and Scandinavian colonies have been planted in Kentucky; a colony of Finns has been established in Tennessee, and many Italians are truck gardening in that state; in Alabama there are colonies of Scandina-

vians, Germans and Italians; there are 25,000 emigrants from the North and West in southwest Louisiana, mostly engaged in rice culture; there are one hundred families or more Hungarians in Tangipahoa parish, near the city of New Orleans. Texas has the largest foreign-born population of any southern state. The Bohemians there are computed as nearly 60,000 in number and large bodies of Scandinavians have found homes in two or more counties. These immigrants have been warmly welcomed by the people of the several states where they have settled, and have been particularly successful in truck gardening, fruit growing, dairying, stock raising, soil reclamation, and intensive culture. No stronger argument in favor of the healthfulness of the southern climate and the feasibility of field labor, could be adduced, than this steady stream of foreign immigration, through all these years.

"The scope for profitable farming in the South is varied and marked, by such conditions as scarcely obtain anywhere else, and are so multifarious as to be hardly enumerable. In agriculture (in its usual import), in horticulture, in trucking, in stock raising, even in floriculture, there is ample room.

"The healthfulness of southern raised farm animals is another large topic, and the saving in food, by reason of their being able to graze every day in the field in winter, on the most prized summer grasses of the North and West. Thus year round, pasturage, healthfulness, saving of the feed that would be fed in colder climates for their sustenance, the chance for the farmer to pocket the value of this feed, these and more aspects, discriminate the South as against the North and West.

"In horticulture, the southern states have made immense strides of late years, and there is hardly a state that has not large areas devoted to fruits—strawberries and peaches especially, whose shipment in refrigerator cars to northern and western cities early in the spring is a notable feature of railroad transportation.

"Trucking, or vegetable-raising, has shown great development in many parts of the South, within recent years. Its proportions are immense in some areas, and the transportation of the various vegetables is a special work with the railroads. The markets are in the northern and western cities in early spring, and the profits have been so great as to not only develop an immense business, but to bring into the South many thousands of gardeners from the North and West, who have introduced one of the most stable and remunerative industries of the 'New South.'

"Cheapness of living in the southern states is a very important matter; the mildness of climate, makes clothing inexpensive; fuel is abundant and cheap; the garden furnishes fresh vegetables all winter and much in the summer.

"While the lands of the most of the country have much appreciated in value in the past

few years, many of them are still obtainable at very low prices. Much of this cheap area is virgin soil, from whence the timber has been recently cut and the large tracts of such land that can be had *in solido*, are especially available and eligible for colonization. These bodies of land are in healthful climate with an ample rainfall, among a hospitable people, with market, railroad and educational advantages and religious privileges unsurpassed.

"The South is surpassingly rich in timber resources and in no line of industry is there so much activity elsewhere as in lumber manufacturing. The railroads are incapable of filling the needs of the occasion in supplying cars for transporting lumber for consumers.

"The vast mineral resources of the South almost untouched, largely unexplored in many areas, are to furnish the raw material for the greatest industrial enterprises. One state, West Virginia, has 16,000 square miles of coal fields, while the entire coal area of Great Britain covers about 12,000 square miles. West Virginia, Alabama, Kentucky and Tennessee have nearly 40,000 square miles of coal fields. Almost every southern state has a supply of coal, and much of it is easily mined and deliverable on navigable water.

"The southern states are mining over 70,000,000 tons of bituminous coal annually. In 1880, the United States (the South included) mined only a little over 40,000,000 tons; and mining of coal South may be said to be only begun. With iron ore, coal and limestone in such close juxtaposition, Alabama will probably dominate the basic steel production of the world. As the basic steel so far surpasses the Bessemer, and is so rapidly supplanting it, this would seem to be the logic of such condition. It is amply demonstrated that, in both steel and pig iron production, Alabama can distance any competition elsewhere.

"In pig iron production, the South furnishes nearly 4,000,000 tons a year, or about the same quantity as the country-at-large a quarter of a century ago; and the activity in its development is increasing beyond any measure. The spread of manufacturing industries based on coal, steel and iron is the greatest marvel of southern development. Sandstones, limestones, granites and marbles are among the resources and some of them are unexcelled anywhere in beauty and structural qualities.

"The largest topic is that of the South's peculiar product, and the industries cognate to it—cotton. This plant is the imperishable foundation of her prosperity, the most conspicuous feature of her agriculture, a sort of preserve or private domain on which the agricultural activity of the rest of the world may not successfully intrude. Such is, of late, the wealth of the South, that with cotton manufacturing and organization and wise management of her farmers, she bids fair to make of this product and its manufacture

a marvelous source of wealth. Cotton at its present prices, ten to eleven cents a pound, is said to be about the price of the last 100 years. For several years past, the cotton crop of the South has averaged over \$600,000,000, which is nearly twice the value of the late greatly stimulated gold production of the world. In the last five years the South's cotton crop has yielded \$1,000,000,000 more to its raisers than the preceding five years.

"I know that there are many who conscientiously oppose colonization of our Russian brethren, on account of many failures in that direction, and on account of the inadaptability of a great many of them, but still I strongly advise that a beginning be made and if this view will prevail, you will find that the southern people in general, and the southern Jews in particular will do their share in making welcome those forlorn and homeless strangers—helping them to earn a livelihood in a benign climate and from a generous soil."

Agriculture as Preventive Charity. Granting that many of the Jewish agricultural settlements have resulted in failures, Rabbi Joseph Krauskopf, of Philadelphia, argued that the reasons for their failure were largely poor locations and lack of proper organization.

"Another factor," he continued, "that militated against making the attempted colonies successful was the ignorance of modern practical and scientific methods of agriculture. For securing a mere living, the methods of farming in vogue in the least progressive part of Europe might have sufficed; but agriculture pursued for profit requires a knowledge of practical and scientific methods, so as to enable labor and toil to yield the largest possible results."

Such knowledge, he said, was not possessed by the colonists, but the recently organized agricultural schools for Jewish boys were in a slight measure filling the need. In advocating the necessity for the distribution of the ghetto population Rabbi Krauskopf said:

"The appalling physical and moral status of the overcrowded ghettos of our large cities, the dependency of thousands of them on the charities, the ravages of consumption among those engaged in sweatshop work within filthy tenements, the immoralities that are festering on the very surface of this seething mass of population, which in the city of New York, for instance, houses within an area of one square mile a population as large as that of Pittsburgh, Cleveland, or Buffalo, the constant inrush upon the already overcrowded of new streams of immigrants—this appalling state of affairs makes scattering of this population no longer a choice but an urgent necessity; makes colonization of large numbers of them, under the leadership of trained agriculturists, the most pressing duty of the hour.

"Never in the whole history of human kind have such enormous sums been expended for the alleviation of suffering among the poor as at the present time. Millions upon millions of dollars are annually sacrificed to the Moloch pauperism. Buildings upon buildings are erected, and organizations upon organizations founded for the care and cure of the diseased and dependent of society. And yet, the more the ravenous appetite of dire want and fell disease are fed, the greater is their clamor for more. From every direction comes the cry for more money, for more hospitals and homes and shelters, for more penal and corrective institutions, for more and more charity workers to take the places of the disheartened or the despairing.

"And a far louder cry than has hitherto been heard is yet to resound. From the boards of health of our larger cities comes the report of the alarming increase of disease and exhaustion among the poor, of the frightful havocs of consumption among the overworked and underfed in the tenements and ghettos, of the thousands that enter life there, born in disease, with disease, and for disease. From the police courts comes the report of the deepening of vicious and immoral tendencies among the tenement population, and of their moral and mental debasement in quarters not only unventilated, unlighted, filthy but often so cramped that a single room must serve the purpose of work room, kitchen, dining room, nursery, hospital, sleeping room for the entire family of both sexes and of all ages. And from the studies of scientists comes an ominous prediction as to the future harvests from such present plantings, as to the onerous burdens we are heaping upon our children, despite, if not with the aid of the millions of dollars we are annually expending on the cure of pauperism.

"But they will not leave the ghetto for the country," is the objection with which our cry 'Back to the soil' is frequently met. That objection was valid at one time. It is, however, no longer true to the same extent it was in former times. One needs but to inquire of any of the agricultural aid societies, or see the applications that reach our agricultural schools, to see the change that has taken place in the attitude of the ghetto population toward country life and country pursuits.

"Another objection is raised on the grounds of lack of means to establish colonies in sufficient number to perceptibly relieve the congestion of the ghetto. Such objections might have been valid prior to the organization of the National Federation of Jewish Charities. It is possible for the different organizations composing the National Federation to set aside annually a sum sufficient for part payment of a number of tracts of arable and properly located lands and for the expense involved in the starting of a few settlements. It is possible for them

to provide homes and the necessary farm equipments, and they can so locate these as to constitute groups of settlements, so as to satisfy the social and educational and religious requirements of the colonists and to content the young as well as the old.

"In addition to farm equipments they can provide industrial shops, so that field and factory shall mutually supplement each other, afford work and wages, in winter as well as in summer, for women as well as for men, for the old as well as for the young, and what is most essential, provide an outlet for different tastes and different skill in labor.

"In charge of a few of such agricultural settlements the National Federation can place a practical and scientifically trained leader who, besides teaching them the art and science of agriculture, will watch over their best interests, will open profitable markets for the produce of their fields and shops, will look to cheapest transportation, and to all other matters that may assure success.

"If transplanting of large numbers of these people of the ghetto to far-away districts be deemed too hazardous and too expensive, there is no reason why small settlements partly agricultural and partly industrial might not be established in villages close to the overcrowded cities.

"Even if this simpler mode of entering upon relieving the congestion of the ghetto and of lessening the enormous drain on the charities be deemed unfeasible or too expensive—then, if the National Federation of Jewish Charities is really serious in its intention of devising ways and means for practical, preventive philanthropy, if it really desires to build up the physical and moral fibre of those condemned to live and toil in the pest holes of our large cities and that make necessary nearly all of our eleemosynary institutions, then let them at least save the young by making possible an agricultural education for the hundreds of ghetto boys and girls who are desirous of an agricultural training, and for the hundreds of others, who could easily be induced to take up an agricultural training, and thus be saved."

Jewish Agricultural Schools.

In a paper on agricultural education for the Jews, Dr. H. L. Sabsovich of New York, maintained that the present situation in the rural communities of the United States justifies all philanthropic efforts toward opening new fields of employment. He quoted the twelfth census to the effect that farming is still the most important industry in the United States—\$20,439,901,164 being invested in agriculture according to the last census, and \$9,831,486,500 in manufacturing and mechanical trades. With an increase in urban population during the decade ending in 1900, and with a growing interest in scientific agricultural education, he contend-

ed that new opportunities were being opened for the farmer. In dwelling on the importance of agricultural education and the necessity for elementary training schools in farm methods for Jewish boys, Mr. Sabsovich spoke in part as follows:

"Jewish organized charity should not only avoid duplicating existing agencies for dispensing charity in order to prevent waste of means and energy, but should especially abstain from competing with state and municipal institutions. To my mind the principal function of Jewish organized charity is to step in, then and there, when and where, the state or municipality fails or cannot act, and co-operate with existing institutions. It would therefore be not only unwise but wasteful to maintain special Jewish agricultural schools whenever the state schools meets the Jewish need for agricultural education.

"Unfortunately, however, none of the present schools meet fully the Jewish needs for the obvious reason that all the agricultural colleges and agricultural high schools were established to further American agriculture, while we have yet to create Jewish farming.

"The contingent from which we are to draw our agricultural school pupils is different from the contingent at the command of the American schools. The latter is composed of children of American farmers who learn the practical operations of farming upon their fathers' farms during their childhood and go to the colleges and schools to study improved methods of farming. As a matter of fact all the farm schools are not in operation during the summer months, and are principally theoretical schools, though the methods of imparting agricultural knowledge in some of the schools may be eminently practical. Under these circumstances, should the children of the Americanized Jew be willing to study agriculture, their lack of knowledge of elementary farming operations and farm life would prevent them from taking advantage of the existing agricultural colleges and high schools, and more so, with the main contingent from which we have to recruit our pupils, the immigrant Jew. To the absence of practical farming training which the Americanized Jew lacks, may be added the lack of knowledge of the English language on the part of the immigrants, and of the American ways of thinking and acting.

"In order then to enable the Americanized and the immigrant Jewish lads to take advantage of the educational facilities offered by the state colleges and secondary agricultural schools, preparatory Jewish agricultural schools should be established where they can learn that which the farmers' boys learn at home, namely, the farm operations and farm life.

"The agricultural education, however, we are to give, must be such as will enable us not so much to prepare the pupils to enter higher agricultural schools, but which will eminently fit them to become practical farm-

ers, and also to prepare them sufficiently to be able to take up advanced studies for practical purposes, should they desire to do so.

"The Jewish agricultural school must train farm helpers, who may, after several years of work for others, become independent farmers. The task of such school, therefore, is to train the young men for the rank and file, and not for leadership. No Jewish community can afford to equip and maintain a school which will equal even the poorest equipped state institution, and in such we cannot train leaders. With less sacrifice, if leaders are needed, individual communities can educate them in the higher agricultural educational institutions, like Cornell University in the East, and the Michigan Agricultural College in the West.

"It might be suggested that the orphan asylums should introduce agriculture for their wards, not with any practical purpose in view, but as a form of manual training the object of which should be to arouse in the children an interest in nature, and to develop through nature studies their higher intellect; to teach them some facts, the knowledge of which may make them useful on the farm; to make them familiar with domestic animals by bringing them in contact with farm animals in the stables; to teach them the principal parts of plants and their uses for men. By introducing school gardens we may arouse interest in farming in some of the wards and prepare them for the career of the farmer.

"The Jewish agricultural schools, as any other educational institution, should not be looked upon as revenue bringing enterprises. They, just as the trade schools, cannot be considered a business proposition for profit. Neither should the school farm be attempted to be run as a *model farm*. The very unskilled labor of the pupils cannot be expected to work wonders. A model farm however conducted strictly on a business basis should be maintained near the school in order to demonstrate to the pupils what agricultural skill can produce.

"We must not forget that Jewish agricultural students, while they may be benefitted by the training they are to get in agricultural schools, in order to remain at farming, they must revolutionize all of their habits of urban life and break all city connections, and get accustomed to a life which as yet remains isolated, the trolley, telephone and traveling libraries notwithstanding. Neither must we overlook the fact that although there are vague yearnings for country life and farm life among our people in large cities, the sentiment is not crystallized and the prejudice of the old country Jew against farming, as the peasant's occupation, is still a factor to be contended with. Nevertheless, signs for a better understanding and a more intelligent regard for farm life among our people is not lacking. During the last month, the month of admission to the Baron de Hirsch Agricultural School at Woodbine,

some applicants of the age of eighteen to twenty-two were accompanied by their fathers, who pleaded for admittance of their sons to the school, expecting themselves to settle on farms and desiring to have some one in the family capable to run them."

Isolation of Advanced Consumptives. Dr. C. D. Spivak, secretary of the Jewish Consumptives Relief Society, of Denver, Colorado, made a plea for the better care of the advanced cases of pulmonary tuberculosis.

"The crusade against tuberculosis, as I understand it," he said, "does not occupy itself with the cure of the disease but it copes with the greater and more important problem, that of preventive medicine. It undertook the task of checking the spread of the disease, with a view of eventually exterminating it from the face of the earth. It took more than twenty-five years to elaborate the method of combating tuberculosis, and yet more than three thousand years ago the method of combating infectious diseases was laid down in such lucid and clear terms that one is amazed at the stupidity of being obliged to call our ignorance 'civilization,' sluggish thinking 'progress,' and the doling of alms 'charity.'

"The theory that certain diseases are 'unclean,' which was enunciated centuries ago, has, after three decades of hesitation, at last been accepted, and we now gleefully pride ourselves that we are, forsooth, really and truly, a civilized race. The practice, however, that one thus afflicted shall be removed from his surrounding, so as not to be a menace to the community, 'alone shall he dwell; without the camp shall his habitation be,' this social prophylactic measure has not as yet been fully understood, nor thoroughly recognized.

"Tuberculosis is an infectious disease. But not all tubercular patients are a menace to the community. Tuberculosis of the glands of the neck, of the spine, of the hip and knee joints, etc., is not infectious. They do not sow the seeds of tuberculosis, because the tubercle bacilli are locked up in the body and cannot come in contact with the outer world. Such cases are called 'closed' tuberculosis.

"But even cases of open tuberculosis differ in their degree of infectious virulence. Men and women in the incipient stage of the disease, those of cleanly habits and who are able to take care of themselves are perfectly harmless. I would prefer as a companion an intelligent consumptive to a Hercules of dirty habits. The most dangerous patients, however, are those who are ignorant of the rudiments of personal hygiene, or who have reached such an advanced stage of the disease, when through weakness and exhaustion they have become helpless, and are unable to take care for their expectoration. We must remember that the danger of tuberculosis lurks not alone in the expectorated solid sputum, but also in the tiny, almost

microscopic droplets which are showered all around during violent coughing, and even during the process of articulation.

"Now, viewing the question of tuberculosis from the above standpoint, which is the standpoint accepted by all students of tuberculosis, let us see what method the modern crusaders pursue in their efforts to exterminate tuberculosis from the face of the earth. While they provide sanatoria and hospitals for incipient cases, for such who do not spread contagion at all, or whose liability to spread the disease is but infinitesimal, they permit the advanced cases—open tuberculosis, the source and fountain head of all contagion—to continue the work of wholesale destruction. Such a method is scientifically absurd, practically futile, and morally brutal. That we cannot hope to diminish or even check the spread of tuberculosis while harboring the advanced cases in our midst, is such a self-evident truth that all our efforts hitherto made in building hospitals and sanatoria for incipient cases are practically futile.

"Had the contemplation of the mistakes made by groping humanity not been such a sad affair, the present movement to exterminate tuberculosis by such unscientific, unpractical and brutal methods would appear Quixotic—a sort of fighting the windmills. The question of exterminating tuberculosis cannot be solved by cheap talk, sickly sentimentality, and fear of looking squarely into the face of truth. Especially cheap talk will not do it. If we cannot organize our campaign of crusade upon a basis that eventually every advanced case 'alone should dwell, without the camp shall his habitation be,' if we cannot build sanatoria wherein the thousands upon thousands of advanced cases could be isolated and taken care of, we may just as well admit to ourselves that we are spending money, time and breath for no purpose.

"Once the question of eradicating tuberculosis will be viewed from the above standpoint, namely, that all advanced cases must be isolated, I am optimist enough to entertain the hope that the means wherewith to carry on this work will be forthcoming. Tuberculosis although a disease of the poor masses, yet it respects not the rich. With men in our midst who own millions which they cannot use up while living, nor save with them their children when stricken with the white plague, it should not be at all a difficult matter to raise a fund of ten million dollars with which to place this movement upon a scientific, practical and humane basis. The poor cannot do it. The rich can and must do it. Not only do they owe it to the poor who have helped them to become rich, but they owe it to their own children whose welfare they must protect."

Home Treatment of Consumption. While home treatment is often advantageous with quiescent cases of tuberculosis, Dr. F. L. Wachenheim, of New York,

advocated suburban or out-of-town sanatoria for the more advanced cases. His paper follows in part:

"The cases of tuberculosis that come to us for home treatment may be grouped as follows: First we have the advanced cases, beyond the early, miscalled incipient stage, and no longer promising subjects for sanatorium treatment. Secondly, there are the quiescent cases, where a certain proportion of wage earning power remains, so that home treatment affords certain economic advantages. The cases that are likely to do well under institutional treatment do not concern us here, for the facilities for taking care of them promise to be entirely adequate within a year or two, being nearly so to-day; the provision for the family, while the wage-earner is in a sanatorium, is altogether a question of ordinary pecuniary relief.

"In the city of New York a plan has been evolved, by which the Department of Health and the various relief societies co-operate in attending to the medical and economic needs of poor families, one or more of whose members are afflicted with tuberculosis. The Health Department even goes so far as to furnish additional food, in the form of milk and eggs, to its patients, where the family resources are inadequate; medical relief proper is afforded through a visiting and nursing staff and special dispensaries, whose management is unquestionably of a high order.

"We might assume, from the above, that the management of tuberculosis is pretty well in hand, and that the home treatment just outlined, supplemented with sanatoria for early cases, hospitals for the incurables, and a complete system of general relief, covers the ground quite fully. It will be my main endeavor to prove that such is not the case, admitting, on the other hand, that our present methods are far from useless, and do meet the situation to a certain extent.

"One set of cases, the second group, where there is still some wage-earning power, is eminently adapted to home treatment; I refer especially to the numerous patients who are discharged from sanatoria as 'improved,' 'arrested' and 'quiescent.' If we can obtain light out-door work for these individuals, they can be handled very well through the dispensary, if that institution is open early in the morning and late in the evening. The customary afternoon classes are quite unsuited to such as have to earn a living, the more so as with the present crowding of our dispensaries, a visit means the loss of almost an entire afternoon. It may be said that the dispensaries under the supervision of the New York Health Department, as well as a few others, are open at suitable hours, and too much praise cannot be bestowed on those who attend at such uncomfortable hours as seven A. M. in winter, to provide for the medical relief of this group of consumptives.

"The full importance of proper disposi-

tion of the sputum has only become apparent since attention was called to the strong probability, that the majority of infections with tuberculosis take place during early childhood, though the disease may remain latent for years or decades, or manifest itself solely through the symptom group called scrofulosis.

"An important, almost the most important, element in the care of the consumptive at home is the supply of plentiful and nutritious food. The diminished wages of the semi-invalid are often inadequate in this direction, and one of the dietetic mainstays, fresh eggs, are an expensive item in winter. When a whole family is dependent on an income of six to eight dollars a week, the consumptive is quite certain to be insufficiently nourished. The average family, of two adults and four children, requires a minimum outlay of ninety cents per day for food at the prevailing high cost of living; statistical research shows that many families endeavor to subsist on half that sum, with inevitable and evident injury to their members.

"Assuming that the wages of the head of the family amount even to eight dollars per week, the relief required by the average family, as mentioned, requires an outlay of five to ten dollars per month as a steady pension. * * *

"The main question in the group mentioned has been that of cost; the consumptive in the active stage, too far advanced for cure in a sanatorium, presents a far more complicated problem, for which home treatment affords no solution. It has been given a fair trial, extending over years, and found wanting, for the following reasons: When the sole wage-earner is the victim, the family rapidly falls into utter destitution; the constant attendance on an invalid who does not even permit his family to sleep, invariably results in the undermining of the health of his wife, who is apt to develop symptoms of tuberculosis within a moderate number of months; the infection of the children then becomes almost a certainty. As the general breakdown of the family progresses, the sanitary requirements so necessary in these homes, become more and more neglected. When the wife is the victim, matters are at first not quite so bad, but the infection of the husband is almost certain to ensue in time and the above picture of squalid misery develop with equal rapidity and certainty. It might be supposed that pecuniary relief and nursing might meet the situation in these cases. The former, however, is likely to exceed thirty dollars per month in very many cases, and the latter cannot possibly be made effective, for sufficient time is not at the nurse's disposal to look after an entire family. When the husband is disabled, it is practically necessary to supply every penny of the family's support; economically, at any rate, the care of

this group of consumptives at home is a ghastly and expensive failure.

"It is plain that the treatment of advanced tuberculosis at home involves two questions, the one medical and hygienic, the other economic. Hospitals or sanatoria for advanced cases, analogous to those provided for the early or incipient ones, would appear to offer the best solution for this grave problem. In New York city the municipality has done something in this direction and promises to accomplish much more; one or two religious organizations have also provided facilities, notably the Roman Catholics, in reserving 350 beds in St. Joseph's Hospital in the Bronx. For advanced cases among Hebrews there are only about thirty beds provided in the Montefiore Home for Chronic Invalids. The inadequacy of this provision is evident; the Jewish consumptive, for various sound and sufficient reasons, is unwilling to submit to the regulations and dietary of municipal or Gentile hospitals; Jewish philanthropy in New York is therefore confronted with a situation that calls for the founding of an institution providing at least 150 beds if the Jewish consumptive poor, whose prospects for cure or permanent improvement are inferior or bad, are to be treated as well as their Gentile fellow-sufferers.

Local Sanatoriums and Tuberculosis.

"Granting all the advantages of more favorable climates," said Dr. Theodore B. Sachs, of Chicago, "the fact remains that the vast majority of consumptive cases, particularly among the poor, have to be taken care of near their homes." In advocating local sanatoriums he spoke in part as follows:

"The energetic campaign in the United States against tuberculosis, during the last five years, stimulated sanatorium building to a great extent; of one hundred and thirty-five institutions scattered throughout the United States and Canada, almost one-half were built during the last five years. The country is awake as to the proper methods of dealing with the white plague, and the next decade will no doubt bring greatly increased sanatorium facilities for the proper care of the consumptive individual.

"A census in this country of all individuals affected with tuberculosis would be impossible under the present conditions; still, from the total annual mortality of 100,000 people from this disease, we may roughly estimate that there are from four to five hundred thousand tuberculous individuals in the United States, while total accommodations are only for the treatment of about 8,000. Thirty thousand consumptives walk the streets of New York alone, while all institutions in the entire state could not accommodate even ten per cent. of them.

"I do not know what is the consumptive population of Philadelphia; if it is twelve to fifteen thousand, then the entire facilities of the state are sufficient only for the care of

five per cent. of them. In the city of Chicago we have at least fifteen thousand consumptives, while the entire state has hospital and sanatorium accommodations for only three hundred, of which one hundred and sixty beds are in the Dunning poor-house.

"The next few years may bring into existence a large number of sanatoria for curable cases of tuberculosis, as well as hospitals for advanced, but we can never hope for sufficient accommodation for *all* tuberculosis patients, unless the reduction in the prevalence of tuberculous is brought about through a radical change in conditions that are responsible for this disease. Till we reach that ideal condition of affairs, which certainly ought not to be very distant in our country, sanatoria will continue to take care only of a fraction of tuberculosis cases, and, while their important object will be to effect a cure or improvement in patients under their shelter, their chief mission will remain to teach a proper mode of life to the community in general and the consumptive in particular.

"The present conditions in every large city of this country, with its enormous number of tuberculous individuals, points to the necessity of local sanatoria near every city, as educational centers for the spreading of the gospel of a life in pure air as the only proper mode of life for every human being.

"In building sanatoria a number of conditions are to be considered:

"1. Climate.

"It would be impossible here to discuss the advantages of different climates; it will suffice to say that even if the results are more gratifying in the mountainous regions of Colorado or other states, we certainly can never hope to give even one per cent. of our consumptive population the advantages of their favorable climates. It is certainly useless to send a man without means to Colorado, Arizona or New Mexico, unless admission is secured for him to some institution. In transporting poor consumptives to other climates, the Jewish charitable organizations all over the country are the only ones, if I am not mistaken, to make provision for their future maintenance.

"I do not need to dwell upon the great record of the National Jewish Hospital for Consumptives in Denver, with which you are fully familiar. This institution, national in scope, was the first to start the procession for eradication of tuberculosis among the Jews of this country; it has done and is doing grand work and we should do everything in our power to make it the greatest monument to the generosity of the American Jew.

"Granting all the advantages of more favorable climates, the fact remains that the vast majority of consumptive cases, particularly among the poor, have to be taken care of near their homes. In our dealing with poor consumptives of large cities we must

have local sanatoria. Even if the state supplies one, it is not sufficient.

"2. Suitable Site for Sanatorium.

"The plans for the King Edward VII Sanatorium in England call for 'an elevated and sloping site with a sunny exposure, well sheltered from cold winds, a dry and permeable soil, together with an abundant supply of water.' An elevation of at least 1,000 feet is considered by some absolutely essential to insure sufficient purity and dryness of the atmosphere, which are of considerable importance in the treating of tuberculosis, and still the results are excellent in institutions built at much lower altitudes.

"Comparing the results obtained at Sharon Sanatorium, 250 feet above the sea level, and Massachusetts State Sanatorium, 1,100 feet, Dr. Bowditch, who is at the head of both institutions, finds that the results, if anything, were somewhat better at Sharon.

"If the experience so far obtained is in favor of high altitude, at least 1,000 feet, as a proper location for a sanatorium, it must be admitted that the question of altitude is not as important as a porous soil, shelter from harsh winds, sunny exposure, good water supply, properly constructed building, nutritious diet, etc.

"Build your sanatoria and camps at as high a level as can be obtained near your home city, provided other conditions are fulfilled.

"As to nearness to the city, a distance of thirty to forty miles will insure air that is not contaminated; again, a shorter distance, dictated by circumstances, may give just as good results.

"3. Character of Buildings.

"The majority of European sanatorium consist of a central administration building with wings on either side for the housing of the patients.

"Another plan is a group of small cottages around a central administration building as exemplified in a number of sanatoria in this country—for instance, the Loomis and Adirondack Sanatorium in New York state.

"Advantages of this plan consist of easier classification of patients, more homelike surroundings, greater amount of fresh air, etc. The disadvantage lies in increased expense necessitated by a more difficult supervision, extra heating, and so on.

"A local sanatorium, consisting of a plain administration building with all the necessary provisions and a number of frame shacks as the lean-tos of the Loomis Sanatorium, is conceded to produce just as good results as more imposing buildings, the ornamentations of which frequently impede the entrance of light and air. It is estimated that an up-to-date sanatorium, devoid of all unnecessary ornamentation, can be built at the expense of \$400 per patient.

"The average cost of maintenance of a tuberculous individual in a sanatorium conducted in an economical way, amounts to not less than \$9 to \$10 per week. The number

of tuberculous cases requiring sanatorium treatment is so enormous that it is our duty to provide accommodations at the least possible expense of construction, using any additional money in giving the sufferers the best kind of food and medical supervision.

"Under ordinary conditions the regular mode of life of the Jew, his abstinence from alcohol, etc., protect him to a considerable extent against the ravages of tuberculosis. The diabolical persecution by certain European governments, with its attendant lack of opportunity to earn a livelihood, constant anxiety, frequent starvation, have undermined to a great extent his resistance to this disease. Thus, we witness at present a greater prevalence of tuberculosis among the Jewish masses than ever before; this has reference also to the acute type of the disease, 'quick consumption,' infrequent among Jews under normal conditions, at present claiming numerous victims in every large city. It is our sacred duty to provide better housing conditions and suitable occupations for our immigrant class."

Homes for Working Girls. In urging the need for homes for the working girls of our large cities, Miss Rose Somerfeld of the Clara de Hirsch Home, New York, spoke in part as follows:

"Although there can be no doubt that homes for working girls are needed in all large cities, it is probably in New York where thousands come yearly to seek work that the problem of providing the proper accommodations will be most difficult. In smaller cities rents are less expensive, the cost of living is not so great, and consequently there is very little difficulty in making such homes self-supporting after they have once been organized. In New York conditions are entirely different and therefore it will be interesting to watch the experiments that are to be made. Though this question has been agitated recently, we must not lose sight of the fact that years ago the Y. W. C. A. in connection with its work established homes for working girls, but, unfortunately, they were based upon such narrow sectarian lines that those of other faiths than Protestantism were not as a rule admitted.

"It is true every hotel has its rules and so must working girls' homes, but these must be reduced to a minimum, and must not interfere with the personal liberty of the girl. The great difficulty to my mind has been that the homes started by individuals have, as a rule, been in charge of women totally unfit for the position they hold * * *. As a result, the home lacks atmosphere, the girls have no ambition, and very soon lose their ideals if they ever had any.

"It is most important therefore to have the proper person in charge even if she is not 'consecrated,' and must have a large salary, for upon her more than anyone else, depends the success of your home. In es-

tablishing these homes, two classes of girls must be taken into consideration. The first class consists of that large group of girls over twenty-five years of age with limited earning capacity, and who therefore are able to pay from \$3.00 to \$6.00 per week. For them we require a system of boarding and lodging houses where they will be free to come and go without question, as they no longer need the moral background that younger girls require. These homes should be absolutely self-supporting. They should be plain and comfortable, and the girls should get that for which they are able to pay.

"In New York, where so many homes are needed, it might be well to grade them according to price, so that the girl in the \$3.00 a week house would be ambitious enough to want the extra comforts she could get by paying \$5.00 per week. The Franklin Square house in Boston, the Eleanor hotel in Chicago, where the price of board is \$2.75 and \$3.25 per week, prove that these homes can be made self-supporting. In the coming month W. R. C. Martin of New York will open his hotel 'The Trowmart Inn,' which will accommodate from 300 to 400 girls at \$4.50 and \$5.00 per week. This hotel no doubt will soon be full to overflowing, and if properly managed, will I am sure, pay a small percentage on the investment.

"The other, and to my mind the more important group, and the one that should be our first consideration consists of those beginners in the world of toil. Girls between the age of fifteen and twenty-five form the more important group. The question has been raised that as soon as employers find that hotels and homes for working girls are being established where they can get board and lodging for \$3.00 per week, the salaries will be cut down and philanthropists will be supplementing the wages that girls should be earning. My experience during nearly seven years has been quite the reverse.

"In the first place many employers do not take the trouble to inquire where the girls whom they employ are living, except that very often the girl who lives with her parents secures the coveted position, and has precedence over the girl who boards.

"Another class of girls who have received very little attention from philanthropists and those interested in all that pertains to the welfare of women are servant girls. Their condition is indeed pathetic in the extreme, for when they are out of work their usual lodging houses are the back rooms of one or the other so called 'intelligence offices,' many of which are more or less disreputable. Very often too these girls who have very little time to themselves, as most households are constituted to-day, require a few days' time between places, in order to renovate their clothes, or rest up a bit. The home could have its attractive sitting rooms where these girls could spend their free evening or Sunday and receive their men friends,

a privilege seldom enjoyed by them in the ordinary household. They would go back to their work happier, and better for the relaxation, and perhaps part of the servant problem would be solved.

"I believe the women of Baltimore were the first Jewish women to recognize the need of a home for working girls, and fully ten years ago opened the doors of a modest dwelling to a few girls who were orphans, or who had no parents in this country. The home soon grew too small, and they bought the beautiful house in which to-day they are caring for twenty-eight girls.

"The next home to be established for Jewish working girls was the Clara de Hirsch Home in New York, over which it has been my privilege to preside for nearly seven years. This home occupies a unique position, as it is different from any of the homes in this country, combining as it does, a trade training school for girls, and a boarding department for those who go to work. The two features are closely allied and interdependent. There are 135 girls living in the large building provided for the purpose, through the generosity of the late Baroness de Hirsch, who also endowed the institution. Of these, eighty-five girls are merely boarders, paying as a rule \$3.00 per week, although some few are taken for less until their earning capacity has been increased in the way I have pointed out.

"It has but two rules: Punctuality at breakfast and the house closes at 10.30 every evening, except Saturday, when it is open until 12, to give the girls the opportunity to go to theatre, etc. Exceptions to this rule are frequently made when a group of girls desire to go anywhere. As they are between the ages of fourteen and twenty-five, it can be readily understood that there must be a time limit. Everything is done to make the girls feel as if they were living in their

own homes, and to do away as much as possible with the artificiality of institution life.

"During the past year, the Jewish women of Chicago have awakened to the necessity of providing homes for Jewish working girls, and as a result, two have opened their doors. The first opened last June, called 'The Miriam,' occupies three apartments in a four-story apartment house, and accommodates twenty-six girls. In a letter received recently from one of the directresses of the home, I am assured that it is now absolutely self-supporting, the girls paying from \$2.00 to \$3.50 per week for board, and that through the efforts of those in charge, the wage earning capacity of each girl has been considerably increased. The second home opened in January, called 'the Ruth,' has accommodations for sixteen girls, and is also said to be self-supporting.

"We are now facing a heavy immigration and hundreds of girls are coming from Russia, Roumania, Galicia and Hungary, unaccompanied by their parents and very frequently having no friends in this country with whom they can live. What are we going to do for these girls? Shall we leave them to their fate? Alone, unaccustomed to American ways, strangers in a strange land. Is it any wonder they become the prey of unscrupulous people whom they have trusted because they promised to secure them work or a lodging? Owing to the heavy immigration of single girls during the past two years, the trustees of the Clara de Hirsch Home opened a special home for immigrant girls, during which time they have cared for fully 600 girls. Do you not think it has meant much to these girls to have had a decent home, and friendly advice on their arrival in this country? In smaller cities there would be no need for a separate home for immigrant girls, but something must be done for the immigrant girl."

Employment Exchange.

Address all communications to Miss Helen M. Kelsey, Editor Employment Exchange Department of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, Room 535, 156 Fifth Avenue. Kindly enclose postage if a reply is desired.

WANTED—Good accountant (woman), for position in office of philanthropic society outside of New York.

WANTED—Man as probation officer for city in middle West.

WANTED—Man as secretary and office assistant in hospital. Must be accustomed to meeting people. Immediate interview necessary.

WANTED—Superintendent of agents in city in middle West. Adequate salary. Immediate engagement.

WANTED—Man as probation officer in connection with settlement work.

WANTED—Teacher of domestic science in state institution in middle West. Engagement June first.

YOUNG MAN of some experience in social work wishes summer employment as an investigator in New York City.

TRAINED NURSE wishes engagement in summer home.

Recent Magazines

DEFECTIVES. *The Physical Anomalies of Feeble-Minded Children.* (The Hospital—February 10.) *The Education of Crippled and Mentally Defective Children.* (Lancet—April 7.)

CHURCH WORK. *How the Church and Labor May Co-operate.* Rev. Chas. Steize. (Railway Conductor, March.) *The Church and Social Service.* Chas. M. Sheldon, W. D. P. Bliss. (Independent—Mar. 29.) *Social Work the Church Can do.* (Public Opinion—April 14.) *Woman and the Church.* Rev. Charles Steize. (April 20.) *The Church and Poor Law Reform.* (Weekly Bulletin of the Clothing Trades—F. H. Barrow—April.) *Rich and Poor Meet Together* (Bowers Mission). J. G. H. (Christian Herald—May 2.) *St. Christopher's Home.* Mrs. William H. Laird. (The Silver Cross, p. 11—May.)

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The
Earthquake
as a Radical
Reformer.

Some surprise has been manifested at the extraordinary good health in those sections of San Francisco still habitable, and in the refugee camps. But it must be remembered that the city has undergone a great purification by fire. The infected and unsanitary houses which for the most part were found in the sections visited by the fire have, of course, been entirely destroyed. The climate of California lends itself peculiarly to outdoor life, and with the exception of the first few days when there was no permanent shelter against the drenching rain, this also has tended to improve the health of the people. Along with the outdoor life has gone an abundance of plain, wholesome food distributed by the relief stations.

Another potent cause is shown in the supremacy of the sanitary authorities and the cheerfulness with which their decisions have been accepted by all classes of people. Over one building that was only partially wrecked, this sign was placed immediately after the fire: "The waterworks in this house are out of order. Do not use them. Obey the sanitary law or be shot." More, after the earthquake and fire, with the terror of it still before their eyes, the vicious and parasitic classes fled from the city leaving behind those who could realize the value of obeying the law and of conducting themselves in full accord with the measures suggested for the prevention of disease.

All these causes, then, have combined to make the worst stricken city of the century, a city of exceptional physical

well-being. In this lies an interrogation to social workers which will be answered variously as men's theories of social betterment differ. How many of these conditions which make for good—and in ways which would not entail harm—may be reproduced in other American communities without resorting to the revolutionary surgery of fire and earthquake. Can a city permanently shelter itself without infection? Will disease-breeding tenements continue because of municipal shiftlessness and the hold of property interests vested in dark rooms and filthy walls? Is our present housing reform but the beginning of a more sweeping and radical movement? Second, are we an over-sheltered people? Must we look to physicians and educators to preach a more vigorous gospel of outdoor life? Will not the enduring contribution of the tuberculosis movement to social well-being (once the death rate of the white plague is mastered), be the inculcation of national habits which will mean more than the prevention of a particular disease—will mean, constructively, a sturdier people. Third, may we not look for new advances in according safely guarded powers to the sanitary authority—new co-operation and inspiration from our physicians to draw from their fund of experience in treating sick people, those social measures which will help to keep people from being sick. In contrast to the Washington physician who argued against the free examination of sputum because it would lose him personally two hundred dollars worth of practice a year, we have had exceptional evidence recently of a contrary spirit—of that sense of

social responsibility on the part of the practitioner manifested last month at the national tuberculosis meeting. May we expect more of it?

Fourth, has more than a beginning been made in our treatment of those anti-social classes which make for viciousness and disease in the community. As we have come to see that the time sentence behind bars does not protect us from the criminal, so we are beginning to learn that a policeman on his beat may be a barrier against the thief who breaks in and steals, but is a poor weapon against the moth and rust that corrupts socially. Again there comes a glimpse of Mrs. Lowell's vision of a state department for the elimination of crime, in the work of which police force and criminal courts, probation, reformatories, and penal colonies, would be factors.

Fifth, there is the question, in the words of the prayer, of "each day our daily bread" and all that it involves in social theory and in the welfare of a free people—the largest and most disputed interrogations of all. For never, probably, has there been such assurance in an American community that everybody to the last man, woman and child, was adequately fed.

A New Jewish Protectory.

Late in the fall of 1905 a fund was started in New York for establishing a protectory for wayward Jewish children. On Tuesday, May 15, at Hawthorne, N. Y., Julius Mayer, attorney-general of the state and president of the Jewish Protectory and Aid Society, laid the corner stone of the administration building.

The new institution, to be constructed on the cottage plan, is located on a high ridge in Westchester county, overlooking the Pocantico Hills. As one of the directors said after looking over the 275 acres of rolling land that the society owns, "The only trouble with the situation is that I am afraid it will make the protectory too popular and breed an epidemic of window breaking and crap shooting."

The administration building; a two story structure 138 by 65 feet, will be flanked by six cottages, each to accommodate thirty boys between the ages of eight and sixteen years. The grounds

and buildings when completed will be valued at \$500,000.

The regular school curriculum will be supplanted by courses in trade and manual training and practical agriculture. The ground plans include a farm and an athletic field.

The officers follow: Julius Mayer, president; Henry Solomon, vice-president; Mortimer L. Schiff, treasurer and Jesse I. Strauss, secretary. John Klein, who was assistant superintendent of the New York Juvenile Asylum for several years, is superintendent.

The Sanitary Engineer— A New Social Profession.

The suggestive article by Dr. Soper on the sanitary situation in San Francisco calls attention to the rise of one of the new social professions which is neither that of physician, nor engineer, nor educator, but smacks of all three. It levies on autocratic powers, kin to those of the ancient tyrants, but at the same time depends upon the sheerest democracy of information and co-operation to give its work effect.

What are the demands made upon this calling, both scientific and venturesome. A graduate of Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute of Troy, N. Y., holding degrees from Columbia University as a result of research work in sanitary science here and abroad, and with engineering experience in water purification throughout the United States and Mexico, Dr. Soper's first large public task was at Galveston in 1900 where 8,000 human lives and \$20,000,000 worth of property had been destroyed by hurricane and flood. He initiated and directed the extensive work for the sanitary rehabilitation of the city, being made a member of the central relief committee of Galveston, an honor conferred upon but one other non-resident, Clara Barton. It will be remembered that the hurricane occurred in September when the wheat and cotton were beginning to move through Galveston, and had yellow fever or other epidemic disease broken out, the carrying trade upon which the very existence of the city was based would have been diverted, probably for all time. No extensive outbreak of disease occurred. In 1902 Dr. Soper was the sanitary engineer of the New York city Department of

Health, in charge of the unique work for the elimination of mosquitoes and malaria at Bayside. In 1903 he was called upon by the New York State Department of Health to initiate measures for suppressing the epidemic of 1300 cases of typhoid at Ithaca, employing measures such as those advocated in the current article. In 1904 the 1300 cases of typhoid at Butler, Pa., were investigated by him and the same year he undertook at Watertown, N. Y., under the city Board of Health, a fight against an epidemic of upwards of 600 cases of typhoid. This proved perhaps the most radical sanitary work in America to eradicate such an outbreak.

Although a large part of such work has been done by educating the public in simple yet scientific ways of protecting itself against disease, Dr. Soper has not hesitated at times to use the autocratic power which the law has conferred upon health authorities for the protection of the public. He has burned houses, seized public schools for hospitals and compelled obedience to sanitary regulations by police force. Such are the responsibilities shouldered by this new profession.

That these responsibilities have been met fearlessly and effectively in San Francisco, the statement of the good health of the city in our opening editorial bears witness. Dr. Soper's suggestions have the weight of singularly broad experience in forefending against the spread of epidemics in the time of crises. They were written out at our request when information as to the sanitary work in San Francisco was still meager. Advances since received indicate that these suggestions have been for the most part anticipated and acted upon and other precautions of various kinds taken. The sanitation has been conducted under the supervision of Colonel G. H. Torsey as consulting advisor to the Municipal Health Commission.

Hospital Advances in New York

It is now somewhat over two years since there was published in this magazine an article by Frank Tucker calling attention to the huge annual deficits incurred by the private hospitals of Greater New York. While Mr. Tucker's dream of a ten million dollar endowment fund that should stimulate the hospitals to

more efficient management and the public to more generous support, has not yet been realized, the past year has recorded gains that will render the endowment at once less necessary and more likely. On another page is published the final report of the New York committee.

Beginning with January, 1905, the following clearly marked steps have led to the present promising outlook for a sustained, educational and sanitary campaign on the part of the united hospitals of New York city:

1. Publication of deficits by hospitals in special appeals or annual reports.

2. Criticism of hospital management through the press; editorials, news items, letters.

3. Conference on hospital needs and hospital finances, March 23, 1905, participated in by over two score of hospital boards.

4. Appointment of a committee to consider economies, accounting and support.

5. Bitter charges of extravagance against certain large hospitals by the New York *Herald*, purely negative and generally ineffective because of constructive suggestions that rapidly followed from other sources.

6. Preliminary report by the Committee on Hospital Needs and Hospital Finances, urging certain definite economies and a simple plan for uniform accounting and reporting.

7. Promulgation of plan of uniform accounting at the National Convention of Hospital Superintendents.

8. Explanation of plans at the New York State Conference of Charities and Correction.

9. Discussion through CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS; medical, nursing, hospital journals and the daily press.

10. Organization of Superintendents' Association (several New York hospitals).

11. Organization of permanent Hospital Conference, initiated by the Saturday and Sunday Hospital Association.

12. Appointment of Hospital Commission by the mayor to consider city's hospital interests.

13. Adoption of plan of uniform accounting by the New York, Presbyterian, Roosevelt and St. Luke's hospitals.

14. Final report of the Committee on Hospital Needs and Hospital Finances, addressed to boards of managers of hospitals in Greater New York, urging immediate adoption of the plan of uniform accounting adopted by the above mentioned hospitals, this being substantially identical in principle with the tentative plan submitted by the committee in November and formally approved by over a score of hospitals.

15. It is hoped to record shortly the general adoption of these suggestions by the hospitals of the city as well as the realization of a compendium of hospital information and annual digest of hospital reports.

**Chicago's
Juvenile Pro-
tective League**

Judge Mack and chief probation officer Thurston, of Chicago's juvenile court, believe that the very idea of the court means that the community is finally responsible for the welfare of every child in the community. "When a home, a school, a church, or other institution responsible for a child fails to care for it itself or so fails to co-operate with other institutions that the child falls between them and suffers or goes wrong, it is the duty of the juvenile court to supplement these other institutions and see that every child shall be properly cared for." This is what Judge Mack and Mr. Thurston said in calling a meeting for the purpose of forming the Juvenile Protective League, which they declare the juvenile court needs in addition to its probation officers and the support of the public.

The Juvenile Protective League has now been incorporated. It will seek to suppress conditions in part responsible for dependent and delinquent children. It will keep a close watch over the environment of the juvenile population and take steps to wipe out the influences and agencies which cause child character to deteriorate. As set forth in its charter, the Juvenile Protective League is organized for the following objects:

1. To organize auxiliary leagues within the boundaries of Cook county.
2. To suppress and prevent conditions and to prosecute persons contributing to the dependency and delinquency of children.
3. To co-operate with the juvenile court, compulsory education department of the board of education, state factory inspector and all other child-helping agencies.
4. To promote the study of child problems, and by systematic agitation through the press and otherwise, to create a permanent public sentiment for the establishment of wholesome, uplifting agencies, such as parks, playgrounds, gymnasiums, free baths, vacation schools, social settlements and the like.

The management of the league is placed with a board of twenty-seven directors, nine of whom are to be elected each year for a term of three years. The twenty-seven selected for the first year's service are a representative group of charity and social settlement workers and public officials who have been interested in the work of the juvenile court.

Each branch auxiliary league through

which it is planned to localize the work, will exercise a direct supervision over a district that will be well defined. In co-operating along the lines set forth in the charter, it will also work in harmony with the police department to the end that vicious dance halls, penny slot gambling devices, undesirable fruit stores and other resorts where children are exposed to dangerous associations, may so far as possible be eliminated. If any such place falls under suspicion and is declared to be unfit by the league, the latter will be prepared to prosecute the offender.

**Hull House
Site Given.**

By the generosity of Miss Helen Culver, Hull House, Chicago, has come into possession of the ground on which stands the main building in which the settlement was started by Miss Jane Addams and Miss Ellen Starr in 1889. Miss Culver is niece and heir of the late C. J. Hull, from whom the settlement took its name. It will interest those who have visited this remarkable quadrangle of buildings in the midst of one of Chicago's congested areas, to know that the patch of land along Halsted street now put to such significant use was part of a forty acre tract in the middle of which the old Hull mansion stood. At that time, fifty years ago, the location was upon the outskirts of the town.

The gift includes the west side of Halsted Street between Polk and Ewing, valued at \$67,000 or \$300 a front foot, and in addition a plot 40 by 60 on Polk street, just across the alley from the Hull House proper, valued at \$9,000.

**Emigration
Encouraged
by a Scotch
Municipality.**

The dairy farms of the Province of Ontario have just received an increment of population which the municipality of Leith, Scotland, has helped to emigrate under the authority of the "unemployed workmen act of 1905."

Thirty-one adults, of whom four are married men, under forty years of age, and six children have been sent at an expense to the taxpayers of about \$40 per adult. Work has been guaranteed for a period of twelve months.

Leith is the first municipality of Scot-

land, if not of the United Kingdom, which has sought to rid itself of some of 400 unemployed. Edinburgh and other Scotch cities are watching the result with interest and with some misgivings. From the published reports it would seem that they are fearful lest this elastic unemployed workmen act may not be the means of laying new additional burdens upon their taxpayers.

Workingmen's Insurance.

The closing session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction last month in Philadelphia was given up to a discussion of workingmen's insurance. Here, as in the sessions on immigration, under the chairmanship of Joseph Lee, the speakers handled subjects on the borderland of philanthropy and industry—subjects dynamic and surcharged with the debate of disputed issues.

The insurance investigations of the past year gave especial timeliness to the papers of the evening, which took up the subject of insurance more specifically from the standpoint of constructive social policy than has, for the most part, marked the discussion centering in the sensational disclosures in New York. Professor Henderson gave the report of the special conference committee which has approached workingmen's insurance from the standpoint of its relation to charitable relief. As chairman of this committee Professor Henderson has given three years' study to the question of governmental insurance here and abroad, and is secretary of a state commission on this subject recently appointed by the governor of Illinois. The other members of the committee, which is continued for another year, are Professor Frank A. Fetter, of Cornell University; John Graham Brooks, author of *The Social Unrest*; Edward T. Devine, general secretary of the New York Charity Organization Society; Amos W. Butler, secretary of the Indiana State Board of Charities; Frederick A. Hoffman, statistician of the Prudential Insurance Company, and the Rev. Samuel G. Smith, of St. Paul. In its general statement of facts and tendencies the committee agree. In relation to the extension of governmental supervision and compulsion it is probable that

two or three are in doubt or antagonistic. For the general trend of their findings the reader is referred to the daily conference editions of *CHARTIES AND THE COMMONS*, and to the *Proceedings* of the Philadelphia conference, when published.

In his address, Professor Fetter told of a refugee from San Francisco, who had that week secured work in Philadelphia as a teamster. Two days later a sewer caved in on a street and his team fell through. The man was thrown out on the pavement. He didn't stop to reason that the team belonged to a rich corporation, nor to count his injuries, but jumped in, loosened the harness and with the help of bystanders got the horses out, though he was so injured that he had to be carried away in an ambulance. Professor Fetter spoke of the fatalities among railwaymen, copper rollers and quarrymen, and other workmen. Against such accidents there is he said no adequate insurance for workingmen and their families in any present employers' liability law, in the present system of private insurance, or in charity. The speaker argued for a general and adequate system that will make the risks of industry a part of regular business costs. Commenting on the old contention that the most dangerous occupations are the highest paid, Professor Fetter said: "It will be a sorry day for the world when a theory of wages can be built up on the universal cowardice of men."

In closing, Professor Henderson said:

It is desirable that the special risks incident to every industry should be made a part of the cost of production of that industry, and thus be borne by the community and by the particular consumers as may be best, not by the particular workman who is unfortunate in contracting disease or in being injured as a result of engaging in that occupation.

That industry is a parasite, is a pauper which does not replace the worn-out machinery and care for the worn-out men. We ask you to go out into your states and influence the different legislatures to work out this problem. It is often said we have no law for it. I have seen the time come when slavery, once sustained by law and court decisions, has been abolished. I believe the time will come when it will no longer be held illegal to act together for the common good. Right we must have first, justice, then charity to care for the broken. If such things be unconstitutional, then must

we as lovers of law and of the constitution secure the needful change of law and constitution. The lawyers by profession have a higher mission than merely to maintain what is written in the statutes; they must find legal ways for the expression of the righteous intention of the community. We are laying a demand upon the legislatures of the country to make law conform, not to conditions which have been outgrown, but to conditions as we face them to-day. I speak with the emphasis of conviction, with the hope that we are seeing the dawn of a long study of a great subject, and of a successful striving for a righteous end.

**The Milk
Show in
Baltimore.**

During the week of May 7 to 15, there was held at McCoy Hall, Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore, an exhibition of milk and milk products. This exhibition came at the close of a series of nine weekly lectures, each bearing on some phase of the problem of a clean milk supply. It embraced graphic presentations of practically all the efforts which have been made in American cities and a number of foreign countries to secure clean market milk.

This campaign in Maryland was inaugurated by the State Board of Health, which had associated with it in arranging for the exhibition, the Maryland Agricultural Experiment Station; the United States Bureau of Animal Industry; the Department of Farmers' Institutes of Maryland; the State Medical and Chirurgical Faculty; the Instructive Visiting Nurse Association; the Maryland Association for the Prevention and Relief of Tuberculosis; the State Federation of Women's Clubs and the Household Economic Association of Baltimore City.

The material exhibited was classified to show:

1. *Chemistry, Pathology and Bacteriology of Milk.*—In this department continuous demonstrations were carried on all day. During each day of the exhibition the public was shown how to conduct simple tests for coloring matter in butter and milk, to detect formaldehyde and other injurious substances in dairy products. The component parts of milk were separated and shown in their right relations. The appearance of diseased cattle and their effect upon the food properties of milk were shown, and it was demonstrated how clean milk could be easily protected from invasion by disease germs.

2. *Infant Feeding and a Model Nursery.*—In this section an infant's milk dispensary was in operation each day. There were daily lectures on the care of infants, including a demonstration with babies who had

been brought by their mothers. In this department there was also a daily demonstration by trained nurses of the use of simple and cheap sanitary devices, from a hammock substitute for a cradle or more expensive infants bed to the cheap yet adequate incubator.

3. *Culinary Uses of Milk.*—In this section a group of domestic science teachers gave daily demonstrations in preparing various kinds of food from milk. These demonstrations included milk beverages, desserts, soups, the use of sour milk and sour cream and cheese preparations. The demonstrations attracted large crowds each day and were especially valuable to housewives and to the board of education, which has met some opposition in its efforts to introduce the teaching of domestic economy in the public schools.

4. *Cattle Feeding and Testing.*—Here were exhibited various approved dairy foods with demonstrations as to their relative values, for the benefit of producers. Demonstrations and lectures on the use of boro-vaccine and tuberculin testing were given.

5. *The Technical Uses of Milk.*—Here were shown many articles of commerce made entirely or in large part from milk. These included many forms of imitation celluloid and imitation ivory, such as knife handles, combs, backs of brushes, pen holders, chess men, dice, checkers, poker chips, billiard balls, tiling, umbrella handles, toys of various sorts, wood polish, decorations of woven fabrics and leather dressing. There was also an exhibition of powdered milks, condensed milks and malted milks.

6. *Bibliography of Milk.*—Here were exhibited numerous books on milk and dairying; the handling and uses of milk; the laws of milk and dairy inspection and treatises on various other phases of the milk problem.

Probably the greatest amount of space devoted to any one section was given up to photographs, charts and models, showing conditions good and bad at home and abroad.

The exhibition was opened on Monday evening, May 7, with a lecture by Dr. C. F. Harrington, secretary of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts and professor of public hygiene at Harvard, who spoke on the need of and the way to secure rational inspection of the dairy industry, and the value of public education in that connection. Later in the week there were lectures by Steven Francisco of Mont Clair, N. J., and Charles F. Doane of the dairy division of the Bureau of Animal Industry, Washington, D. C., and Dr. Henry Dwight Chapin of New York. The last named spoke particularly on infant feeding.

The public learned from this investigation that up to this time whatever

advance toward a clean market milk has been made in Maryland, has been brought about by a small group of dairy-men, who on their own initiative have begun to use modern methods in the production and handling of their supply. The public also discovered that the state needed to establish by law certain standards in relation to the purity and cleanliness of market milk and the number of bacteria it may carry. It was further shown that the state needed to establish a system of inspection to enforce such standards as might be set up.

The Philadelphia Conference

Paul U. Kellogg

For a third of a century now, men and women have been meeting together annually in what is known as the National Conference of Charities and Correction. The Philadelphia meeting last month saw a registration of 1,400 delegates present,—a strong body, judged by numbers; an influential body, judged by the presence of ex-President Cleveland the opening night, with two governors and perhaps the most talked-of mayor in the country on the floor; but, more significant characteristic than these, a heterogeneous body such as it would be extremely hard to duplicate. To the broad lines laid down by its founders, who stood out for an open platform and brooked no tests of membership, is due the continuance, through stormy years and fair, of this gathering of all sorts and conditions of men concerned in the betterment of their generation.

The energetic movements which built up the first great state boards of charities and correction and established and extended the systems of institutions to care for delinquent, defective and dependent, built the conference upon a sure foundation. In time, new movements have increasingly engrossed its program, some of them not without lively contest. For instance, there came the workers with children who maintained that you should not wait for bad conditions to produce adult criminals and paupers, but by an institutional environment calculated to elicit the best that is

in them, train neglected children into a good citizenship. There came the child-placing workers who maintained that the problem lay not in orphanage or juvenile asylum, but in putting such children into normal homes—in the community. And there came the juvenile court workers who maintained that the real problem lay earlier still, in reaching them in such homes as they had—in the community. Time has brought not only the concession but the conviction that there is work to be done along all three lines.

This insistence on prevention—back from the institution for the adult to the institution for the child, and from the institution for the child to work for the child in the community—has been typical of the trend in kindred fields. The problems of the charity organization worker, the visiting nurse, the settlement worker—these newer recruits in the profession of philanthropy—have been found not in the artificial groups of insane persons, defectives, sick, but in natural groups, the communities from which these marked ones are drafted. So it was that at the Portland conference of two years ago the full flood of this newer thought found expression in a demand for better living conditions, for social justice, for enlisting, even at some sacrifice if need be of public interest in existing institutions, all resources of spirit and support in a demand for a regenerated community life.

This year's conference was not a reaction from this position so much as a balance. The meeting was made the success it was at the instigation of a society for organizing charity; it elected as president a dean of the state boards. Its general secretary has served hitherto as secretary of a charity organization society, as secretary of a state board, and as superintendent of a public institution. Of the nine standing committees for next year, five—legislation, state supervision, the insane and epileptic, the defective, prison and police administration—emphasize the importance of the problems of state care; while committees on children, on needy families, "their homes and neighborhoods", on the "promotion of health in home, school and

factory" and on workingmen's insurance attest the strength of the newer social conceptions.

Nor was this merely a patching of truce between factions—it was a measurable increase in common understanding. The atmosphere was cleared by the frank charges of the presidential address which criticized institutions and charitable societies alike as not fearlessly searching out the underlying causes which bring applicants and inmates to them. With tugs and triangulations, buoys, dories, sounding apparatus, the government is spending years in plotting New York bay and gauging the dredging operations designed to clear for the largest craft a safe straight channel to the sea. As observatories to gauge of the results of social endeavor;—as laboratories to sift through the human material which comes to them and arraign the responsible factors in the community life which tend to produce orphanage and delinquency, which lower the brow or loosen the jaw, which snarl the nerve or dull the eye or rot the lung of those individually no stronger, no weaker than their fellows, but unfavorably placed;—as experiment stations, with all the powers of environment and plant and discipline at their command to arrive at social adjustments and educational processes which will build up where the public has hitherto but torn down—here lies a field of usefulness, for asylum and reformatory, hospital and school. Here is added new dignity of labors to those tasks with which human sympathy and a scientific spirit have long endowed them. And even more obvious is the call to workers outside the institutions—in the courts and tenements and workshops.

So much for purposes. To be concrete, what had this year's conference to offer in method or program to meet the query—"But what are you going to do about it?" First as to program: There was statement of a policy of experimentation in several distinct fields—of making philanthropy a foregoer, to find out and prove work and be ready then to turn that work over to the public. The most signal expression of this policy was in the discussion of the societies for the prevention of cruelty to children when

representatives of the Pennsylvania and Massachusetts organizations broke with the Gerry traditions, declared for turning over to adequate juvenile court machinery many of their current tasks, and for freeing themselves to engage in pressing undertakings. The complement of this policy came in the address of Governor Hanly. In tracing the development of institutions in Indiana, he eulogized that humanitarian statesmanship which has extended the provision of state care, from merely the pauper and criminal till by successive steps it has taken over the treatment of the insane, the idiot, the deaf, the feeble-minded, the epileptic and now the tuberculous.

Next as to method. Here even more definite plans were set forth. Under the section on needy families and their homes—Miss Brandt interpreted the statistical work by which progressive charitable societies are trying to get at what lies back of their records. Only a beginning has as yet been made. The need for social book-keeping of philanthropic enterprises in general was brought home by Dr. Cleveland, and a critical analysis of both the lapses and the possibilities of reports of institutions was presented by Mr. Snedden. The demand is for more than a mess of facts—it is for categories and units which will admit of comparison. And it is significant that as chairman of the committee on statistics, President Amos W. Butler of the Minneapolis Conference of 1907 secured the adoption of a resolution which recommends that all state boards make use of a page blank drawn up by the committee, as a first step toward uniformity. Here again is a beginning.

Whether the rigorous prosecution of these policies for "finding out" result, as has long been held, in reaffirming that the causes of dependence and delinquency lie in weaknesses of individual character: whether, as Mr. Devine held, there is a party of the second part in the organized forces of corruption, injustice, and predatory greed which must be dealt with by radical methods; or whether the facts will sustain the socialists in their argument that the ills are too deep seated to be remedied by anything short of an overthrow of the industrial order, is be-

side the practical task at hand. There is no surer safeguard against wrong interpretation than to get at right facts.

To their credit be it said, that a leadership in recognizing this need comes from among those sustained, even-tempered, and wisely-wrought activities for the good of the community, which are the result of the experience, the inspiration and the sane thinking of many groups of men and women in many places. These, too often overlooked, or taken for granted, or discounted, make up the permanent body of social work, carrying over what the past has of resourceful heritage, and gathering fresh vigor from the advances of the present.

The Earthquake's Emphasis on Human Good

Graham Taylor

Human nature has a great way of reasserting its self-respect and giving the lie to its defamers when a supreme crisis cuts through all its overlying abnormalities and lays bare its underlying elemental goodness. It is at least some compensation for all the incalculable loss and inconceivable misery of the California earthquake and fire to have had the human good rise to such supreme height as to dwarf the bad almost out of sight.

The prompt presence of military force undoubtedly overawed the comparatively little inhumanity that here as always showed its ugly teeth and claws. But the wonder of the situation is that martial law was not declared, that there were so few instances in which force was actually resorted to, and that soldiers and citizens, sufferers and relievers were so good natured, under the spell of human sympathy, as to get on with each other so well. If justice was rough-handed in being without its customary forms of law, it was also wonderfully even-handed and considerate. If charity was impulsively spontaneous, it was so remarkably well ordered from the very first as to let none die, or even suffer unnecessarily, from hunger or exposure.

Moreover, there on the coast where individual competition and class struggle were at their fiercest contention, a general and generous co-operation proved only possible, but even more natural than

strife. A former mayor, Phelan, and a present mayor, Schmitz, each rose to his own full height of big manhood and worked together like brothers. City policemen and United States soldiers merged their prerogatives by common consent. Labor politics and old party politicians were no longer at odds. There was truce even in the race war. Chinese merchants contributed their generous share to the general fund. Local committees were considerate of the diet preferred by Chinese coolies. Humanity was the party of the first part, and there was no second.

As at Pentecost of old, "the mighty rushing wind" and "tongues of fire," made less impression upon observers than the breaking up of the great deep of the common human heart. The amazement of eye-witnesses returning from the scene of our greatest disaster is over the fact that people of many lands and tongues "were together" as never before, and that "distribution was made to each as every man had need." Once more God is glorified, not by the defamation of all humanity to the lowest "depravity," but by the recognition of the divine image in man through the exaltation of that elemental goodness which always rises supreme when men are freed from super-imposed divisiveness and have a chance to give account of themselves,—and each one to show the other what he really is at heart.

The Chivalry of the Crowd

Graham Taylor

The "one touch of nature which makes the world kin" is happily not so rare as great disasters. Its thrill is felt oftener than the shock of an earthquake. We do not have to look so far to see it as to some distant coast or some devastating volcano. It is as near by and constant as is the common human life about each one of us. The world is "kin" everywhere; the mass bulks larger than the class in human consciousness.

Chivalry is not the possession of any past age. Its age is never past, but is ever present. Knights errant are neither an extinct species, nor genii arising and disappearing with some convulsion of nature. They exist wherever the race

does. They persist with human life itself. They are to be recognized not in a class by themselves, but in the mass of mankind. Their insignia are not, and probably never deserved to be, so much the waving pennants and nodding plumes of "free lances," entering any "lists," as clodhoppers, aprons, overalls and jumpers of the common place work-a-day world. "Noblesse oblige" is no dillitanti sentiment of the merely polite possessors of plenty. It is the sturdy sense of common honesty which makes all who are unspoiled by special privilege feel that having anything is owing it to anyone who has nothing. And there is as much more "noblesse" among those who out of their deep poverty let their generosity abound than among those whose gifts cost them little, as there was in the poor widow who cast in all her living with her mite, to him at least who still sits "over against the treasury." That generosity is boundless when measured by its resources. For when those who live on the narrowest of livelihood give their time or money, they feel it as those who have plenty left for themselves after they have given to others cannot even imagine.

The charity of the poor to each other fairly beggars that of the rich and well-to-do. The dole at the door is not on the same plane with that of the housewife who cannot give of her scanty larder unless some of her own are content to have less. The corner grocer or meat market man carries more loans without interest for charity's sake than almost any philanthropist. The Chicago workingman's wife who by prompting her husband to sleep in the park, made room in her own bed for a neighbor's baby to be more "decently born," was more "charitable" than if she could have paid her neighbor's way into the best lying-in hospital. The writer recently was deeply impressed at the "charity" of a poor Italian neighbor who wanted to take into his home four little children, orphaned by the double tragedy of the murder of their mother and the suicide of their father, but hesitated because he had "six children and these four more would make ten."

The chivalry of humble men and women, who without hope of reward,

recognition, or even gratitude put themselves out a great deal that some other one may be let in just a little, is worthier of the old knight-errantry than many a more conspicuous deed of courage or sacrifice. And the best of it all is that they never seem to think of it as sacrifice, or speak of it as "cross-bearing" or even "service," or to expect anyone to notice it or say anything about it.

No gauntlet was ever picked up with more chivalric spirit than by a young Irishman whose sister's husband was sent to prison for burglary. Although the wayward man would not be even on speaking terms with his hard working honest brother-in-law, that manly fellow refunded from his own savings what the burglar stole, in hope of saving his sister's family from the disgrace of a prison sentence. When this failed, he assumed the entire support of his sister and her two little ones. In so doing he indefinitely deferred setting up house-keeping with his own newly wedded wife until the discharge of the erring husband releases him from the burden he has assumed. Sharing his feeling, the young bride abides in her old home until this obligation to "his folks" has been met. Loftier spirit in returning good for evil and in protecting the weak and helpless, without counting the personal cost, can hardly be conceived than actuated this young workingman in undertaking what he is doing just as a matter of course.

Said a sturdy son of toil, who had borne more than his share of the hard knocks of the world, to another who had seen life only from a more sheltered angle and a conventionally "religious" point of view: "You must be happy to think that all you have lost in doing good will be made up to you, and that you will be rewarded for doing what you ought to have done. But we poor fellows have no other reason for doing right than just because it is right."

To such as these all who love reality must take off their hats and bow in reverence to the real thing. But let those understand who think they or their kind have any monopoly of philanthropy or chivalry, that there are more philanthropists and knights-errant to bow to in the crowd than in any class.

In the Thick of Relief Work at San Francisco

Ernest P. Bicknell

General Superintendent Chicago Bureau of Charities

[This is in substance Mr. Bicknell's address before the National Conference of Charities and Correction in Philadelphia at the general meeting May 12, in charge of the conference committee of which he was chairman. It was an extemporaneous talk, the haste with which he left the engrossing work in San Francisco to be present at the Conference, not admitting of the careful preparation of a paper. Mr. Bicknell set out from Chicago immediately after the catastrophe as representative of the Chicago Committees, reaching San Francisco at the same time as Dr. Devine, and without question of official appointment or other formality, in the stress of work to be done, he has worked shoulder to shoulder in the organization of immediate and constructive relief.]

Immediately after the disaster had occurred in San Francisco the president of this conference was sent out as a personal representative of Secretary Taft, president of the National Red Cross Society. At Chicago a large relief movement had been started and the committee in charge had asked me to go to San Francisco as its representative in the distribution of the money it was raising. Telegraphic messages were meager and the mails were entirely cut off. People did not know to whom to send money or supplies or what method of disbursement had been adopted. It was chiefly to help decide these questions that I went.

I was fortunate in joining Dr. Devine in Chicago as he passed through and we went to San Francisco together. We reached that city on the evening of April 23, the earthquake having occurred on the morning of the eighteenth. The fire was under complete control, but smouldering and breaking forth sullenly from the ruins in a hundred places. The next day we were plunged into the maelstrom of relief work. There was no chance for a leisurely survey of the situation. The conditions were appalling; the magnitude and urgency of the task of relieving them overwhelming. We rolled up our sleeves and went to work and before half of our first day was passed we were in the thick of things.

The burned area is irregular, but it is, roughly, about three miles square. In this area, the mint and the postoffice building remain undestroyed, although the latter is seriously damaged. Perhaps half a dozen residences in this section also escaped destruction, being protected by

hills or fortunate shifts of the wind. The docks along the water front were not burned. The earthquake destroyed the waterworks, breaking the mains and reservoirs; it broke the sewers; it destroyed the street car lines by buckling up the rails. In some places sections of a street, or the whole street, moved sideways two or three feet and the car tracks were bent and twisted. The power houses were destroyed or made useless. The electric light system was destroyed, as was also the gas lighting system; telephone and telegraph systems were wrecked and the postal system was suspended. Not a single public utility was left in operation. No lights, no heat, no water, no drainage.

It may be well to give briefly what had been done in the way of relief immediately after the fire. Before the fire was extinguished, but after it was seen that a great number of people were to be burned out of their homes, the business men, the municipal authorities and the officers of the regular army stationed there in the army post, awoke to the fact that something must be done instantly to prevent distress, and they began seizing the groceries, the meat shops, the clothing stores and any other establishments that contained supplies which might be needed. These were held and guarded by the police and by the soldiers. There was no opportunity for mobs to form and loot the places of business because of this prompt and admirable action of the authorities. Wagons and automobiles and carriages were also seized and used for distributing supplies among the frightened thousands who had

fled to the parks and other open spaces in and about the city.

The earthquake occurred about five o'clock in the morning and of course found the majority of the people of the city in bed. They were driven from their homes in alarm and then the fire came, following the earthquake, and many had no opportunity to return to get clothing or any of the valuables or necessities they had left. Thousands were in the parks and the open spaces without any clothing except nightgowns, or calico slips, or one or two thin garments which were a very poor protection from the cold nights and chilly evenings and mornings prevailing in San Francisco in April. Great numbers of those whose homes did not burn deserted their houses for a few days fearing more earthquakes or another outbreak of fire. These have gradually returned.

General Funston rapidly distributed food, blankets and tents from the army warehouses, and assisted in maintaining order by causing the streets to be patrolled by soldiers. The national guard was also called in by Governor Pardee and no serious disorders occurred. The highest praise is due to the authorities, federal, state and city, for the skill, courage and celerity with which they met this gigantic emergency.

The First Days.

Now as to the distribution of relief in the first days. Any man who could get a wagon or vehicle of any sort in which to haul supplies went to the stores under the care of the police, obtained a load of food or clothing or blankets and distributed it among his neighbors or in his neighborhood and thus started a little relief station. And few questions were asked in those first two or three days as to whether he was a responsible man, or whether he knew how to distribute his supplies wisely, or how many persons were dependent upon his station for relief. The main thing was to get something to the people to eat and wear and to provide them with shelter.

About one hundred and fifty relief stations sprang up in this independent way throughout the city. Individual citizens

or small groups had charge of them. Many of these men were extremely capable, leading citizens of San Francisco, and they did the work with skill and care from the start. Others were irresponsible and did very poor work. A great deal of waste naturally occurred. Any one who wanted supplies could get them by going to a relief station where they were; then he could go to another one and get some more if he wanted to do it. All this at the beginning was quite unavoidable. At the same time, people did get fed and I am sure that the amount of suffering from cold and from hunger was surprisingly small, all things considered.

After the most immediate wants of the population had been satisfied, the first pressing problem was that of sanitation. Latrines were quickly constructed in the camps and all over the city. A large number of teams were impressed into the service of collecting garbage and refuse, which was loaded on barges, towed out to the ocean, and dumped overboard.

Orders were issued that no fires should be lighted in many houses and that order still exists to-day. All the cooking is done over open fires along the street, or on rusty stoves stationed in the gutters and belching smoke out of short sections of pipe. For a week after the fire, only candles were permitted for light and they had to be blown out at 10 P. M. Violation of this rule meant a prompt call from a blue coat with a rifle.

When we reached San Francisco, we found an energetic and extensive system of relief organized and performing an enormous work against almost inconceivable difficulties. Mayor Schmitz had risen to the occasion in a manner which won the praise of those who had been his strongest critics in normal times. The general relief committee which he appointed was composed largely of men who were politically, socially and commercially opposed to him. In fact, all the barriers ordinarily separating men were broken down by a disaster which overwhelmed all else. When we arrived five days after the earthquake, every one had some kind of shelter. Some had houses

or tents; others had old shacks that had been built out of pieces of wood and sheet iron, or of dry goods boxes thrown together and a blanket or piece of oilcloth spread across the top. Often just two stakes were driven in the ground, a pole laid across the top, and a blanket thrown over it.

**The
Co-ordination
of Relief.**

After the first few days of mad energy, the time came for protecting the relief organization so as to stop waste, to bring all the independent efforts under centralized control and to prepare for the constructive work of restoring the refugees as rapidly as possible to self-support and approximately normal life. The Red Cross, the municipal authorities and the army officers joined in devising a plan for the accomplishment of these objects. This plan included supplementary military and civil organizations. The city was divided into seven sections. At the head of each section is a military officer and a Red Cross chairman. At central headquarters are stationed a military officer who directs the work of the military men in the sections and the executive officer of the Red Cross. The army, through General Greeley, received all the supplies shipped into San Francisco, and I may say here that shipments known to be relief supplies, no matter to whom they were directed, were taken over and handled in the same way. Any persons who have shipped boxes to certain churches, fraternal orders or individual friends or families, will learn eventually that these things did not reach the people to whom they were sent. They had to be handled in this fashion or not at all. The military took possession and distributed them through the regular stations to the people without any discrimination whatever.

The military, then, receive the supplies that come in and haul them from the cars to central warehouses, where the bales and boxes are opened, inventoried and classified. Each morning they transport the day's requirements from the warehouse to the one hundred and fifty relief stations. This is as far as the military goes. The Red Cross chairman in each section is responsible for the

personnel of the people in charge of the relief stations and for the machinery of investigation and selection by which the beneficiaries are designated. By this means all the relief stations are brought under control and cannot obtain supplies, without the approval of the chairman in the section in which they are situated. Thus the army is responsible for the supplies from the railroad station or dock to the point of actual distribution to the consumer, while the Red Cross assumes all responsibility from that point forward.

**The
Bookkeeping
After a
Disaster.**

The Red Cross has established a registration department, with one hundred and fifty school teachers (the schools were, of course, closed by this disaster), as investigators. A registration card has been devised, a simple card on which is entered the name of the head of the family, his present and last previous address, his occupation, the union to which he belongs, the church and any fraternal order to which he belongs, the name of his last employer, the address of the employer, etc. A labor bureau has been established and has access to this registration, the registration cards all being filed in the central office. The registration is in charge of Dr. C. C. Plehn, of the University of California. Dr. Plehn directed the taking of the United States Census of the Philippines.

This force of teachers composing the investigation corps under his direction, take one little food district at a time and sweep through it systematically from one side to the other. Such a district consists of but a few blocks and they visit every house or tent or shack, register everybody and learn whether they are getting supplies and where, and if they are not, whether they need supplies. The investigator fills out two cards. One is the registration card containing the information above mentioned. That is filed at headquarters. The other is the ration card and on this is written in ink the name of the man, the number of people in his family and the number of rations to which his family is entitled. The food stations are all numbered and the number of each family's stations is written on the card.

When the man wants the allowed rations, he takes this card down to the station and a representative of the Red Cross inspects it to see that it bears the right number. This prevents a family from going to one station and then to another and getting supplies from each. If the card is right, the Red Cross representative stamps the date on it, and the card can't be used again that day. The holder of the card then passes down the line, keeping his ration card in sight and receives the number of rations which the card calls for. This system is expeditious and works so well that 225,000 people were able to receive rations daily without unreasonable delay in the waiting line.

Each day the man in charge of each food station makes out a requisition or order for the food he will need the next day. This is sent to the military officer in command of the section who looks it over and makes any modifications or necessary substitutions. The registration goes then to general headquarters, and the supplies issued early the next morning are hauled out from the government wagons to the stations.

The clothing is handled in much the same way, but is all kept in a few central buildings and is not distributed through the food stations. Families secure orders for clothing, bedding, etc., from the Red Cross visitors and have these orders approved by the Red Cross section chairman; they then go to the clothing depots and are fitted out according to the order they bring.

In each one of the sections also there is a physician. The drugs and medicines are all kept on the government ground at the Presidio and an army surgeon, Colonel Torney, has charge of the sanitation of the entire city with an assistant in charge of the sanitation in each of the sections, and orders for them are made out by the section physicians.

A bureau of transportation has been established and people who need to leave the city on reduced rates of fare are given orders by this bureau, which are honored by the railroads.

The Future and Its Problems.

My description has covered in a general way, the relief measures which have been taken up to date—how the population has been cared for in its physical needs. The greatest number of people fed from the relief stations in any one day was estimated at over 300,000. That number is steadily decreasing and will probably be down to 200,000, or lower, by June 1.

It is estimated that half the population of San Francisco has been burned out. Not half of the area of the residence section is burned; not nearly half; but the crowded part is gone. The business section was burned. The tenement region was burned. The Italian quarter, the Chinese quarter and other foreign quarters were burned, besides a great area of homes of moderate comfort and many of luxury.

Now that the machinery for supplying food and clothing is in operation and working smoothly, there is the ever-present question of sanitation. We cannot afford to have an epidemic of typhoid break out at San Francisco in these camps. Then comes the question of getting people back into normal life as rapidly as may be. Much employment of certain kinds is now open and more will soon be provided. The day laborer will have a vast work to do in clearing off the miles of ruins. The building trades people will have a great deal of work presently. Cheap wooden buildings are already springing up on ruins or in vacant spaces where there were no buildings before.

But people whose work was sedentary, clerks, book-keepers, stenographers, salesmen and saleswomen, employees in many lines of manufacturing, and even doctors and lawyers have nothing to do and no early promise of any employment. And even those who find employment will not be able to build homes and buy furniture and re-establish themselves for months—for years. To what extent the relief fund may be used for building homes cannot yet be determined. Such use was made of relief funds following the Chicago fire and the Johnstown flood. If this plan is followed in San Francisco,

the fund will have to be greatly increased beyond the amount definitely known to be in hand at present.

The illness prevailing is no greater than normal. No present need exists for extra physicians or nurses from other cities. A few days ago a party of fourteen nurses came down from Seattle, reaching San Francisco in the afternoon. The first question the relief committee asked them, when they filed into the committee room at five o'clock, was whether they had return transportation. They said, with some surprise, that they had. The chairman of the committee said: "There is a train which starts for Seattle to-morrow morning at nine o'clock." They went home on that train. Many physicians came from other cities and have gone home.

As San
Franciscans
See It.

One gains the impression that the people of San Francisco are yet somewhat

dazed and scarcely realize the overwhelming nature of their losses. They have all suffered together; all gone down together; and their relations to each other have not changed as when one man loses his all and drops below the level of his associates. They have not yet felt the actual pinch of circumstances. This will come when the return to normal conditions is necessary. All the fountains of good fellowship, of generosity, of sympathy, of good cheer, pluck and determination have been opened wide by the common downfall. The spirit of all is a marvelous revelation of the good and fine in humanity, intermittent or dormant

under ordinary conditions perhaps, but dominant and all pervading in the shadow of disaster.

Recently I formed the acquaintance of a man who now drives an automobile. He had a large machine shop and was a rich man before the fire. The other day he was working about the automobile while his passengers were attending a committee meeting at army headquarters. Presently there approached a man who had purchased \$20,000 worth of machinery at his shops just before the fire.

The customer said to my friend: "Hello, R—, what are you doing here?"

"Driving this automobile," said R—. "What are you doing?"

"I'm driving that automobile over there," said the customer, and the two shook hands and laughed heartily at the grim humor of the situation.

The open fires in the streets in front of every house have become so nearly a permanent institution, having been in use now for three weeks, that screens are being erected around them to obtain a little privacy and to keep the wind from blowing the fire away. The spirit of the people is shown by the inscriptions which they write on the walls of these thousands of little shacks along the streets. A great many of the places are named after famous hotels, such as the "St. Francis," the "Palace," the "Waldorf-Astoria," etc. Perhaps the prevailing sentiment could hardly be better shown than by a motto, chalked on one of these little temporary street kitchens. It is: "Make the best of it; forget the rest of it."

The Situation in San Francisco

Edward T. Devine

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[This authoritative statement from the issue of the "American Monthly Review of Reviews" for June 1, is printed practically simultaneously here, through the courtesy of the editors of that magazine.]

The desolation of San Francisco is already transfigured. The beauty and majesty of her hills and harbor are revealed anew, and the undaunted spirit of her people is no less manifest. The desolation is great indeed. No one can imagine it in advance, at a distance, and as its de-

tails are slowly taken in, the heart grows sick, until in very self-defense the brain refuses to attempt to comprehend what has happened. But the salvation of the city, which meant much not only to San Francisco but to America, lies precisely in the determination not to be appalled or

paralyzed by the magnitude of the disaster or to dwell upon the difficulties of reconstruction.

Great stretches of unoccupied city sites are here, the superb deep-water harbor is here, the railway terminals and the wharfs and docks are intact, steel construction and frame construction have demonstrated their capacity to withstand the earthquake tremors. On the other hand, the lessons of inadequate water supply, cheap building and insecure foundations, narrow streets, and the neglect of precautions of various kinds, have been learned, and the new San Francisco will surely be a better and greater city than the old.

Even in this first month the residents of the city and their friends in the state, oppressed and burdened as they have been by the enormous relief work for which the main responsibility has of course fallen upon them, have nevertheless lost no time in taking up the problems of reconstruction. The mayor's committee of fifty appointed to deal with the emergency caused by the disaster, had sub-committees on food, housing the homeless, transportation, restoration of retail trade, and such other matters as have to do with instant relief and restoration of orderly government. Within seventeen days, however, this committee had given place to a new committee of forty—composed largely of the same men, but having no committees to deal with such subjects as have been named. It is worth while to emphasize this by calling the roll of the new sub-committees:

- Finance;
- Assessment;
- Municipal Revenue and Taxation;
- Municipal Departments, including Police;
- Special Session of Legislature and State Legislation;
- Charter Amendments;
- Judiciary;
- Building Laws and General Architectural and Engineering Plans;
- Securing Structural Material;
- Public Buildings (Municipal);
- Public Buildings (Federal);
- Extending, Widening and Grading Streets and Restoring Pavements;
- Parks;
- Reservoirs, Boulevards and General Beautification;
- Sewers, Hospitals and Health;

- Water Supply and Fire Department;
- Harbor Front, Walls, Docks and Shipping;
- Lighting and Electricity;
- Transportation;
- Permanent Location of Chinatown;
- Outside Policing;
- Library and Restoration Thereof;
- Newspaper and Press;
- Condemnation of Old Buildings;
- Burnham Plans;
- Statistics;
- Insurance.

In a few instances the names of committees remain the same, but with an entirely new meaning. Transportation, for example, was, in the committee of fifty, a committee to send destitute persons out of the city. In the new committee of forty it is a committee to deal with the steam and electric railways. The original finance committee, of which James D. Phelan is chairman, known officially as the Finance Committee of Relief and Red Cross Funds, alone remains of the original committees, or rather is adopted by the Committee of Forty to which it becomes responsible, while a new finance committee, under the chairmanship of E. H. Harriman, is appointed to take up the gigantic tasks of financing the work of reconstruction.

Continuity has been given to the work which has been done, and that which is now in progress, by the uninterrupted activities of the municipal departments, and on the side of voluntary effort by the Finance Committee of Relief and Red Cross Funds, which is responsible for the safeguarding and the disbursement of the large relief fund which has been created by voluntary contributions. This committee, originally appointed by Mayor Schmitz in consultation with Mr. Phelan, whom he had selected for chairman, was enlarged by the addition of three members selected by the California branch of the National Red Cross, and was made officially the finance committee of the Red Cross, as well as of the Committee of Fifty, with the understanding that it would eventually submit its report to both of the bodies which it represents, and that its accounts would be so kept that they could be audited by the War Department, as is contemplated by the act of Congress under which the Red Cross is incorporated.

No reference has yet been made to the agency which in the work of relief and sanitation has been in the most conspicuous place during the first few weeks, viz., the United States Army. In the temporary absence of General A. W. Greely, the commanding general of the Division of the Pacific, the responsibility for prompt action fell upon General Frederick Funston, who is in command of the department of California, one of the departments comprising the division. He promptly placed the invaluable services of his officers and soldiers at the disposal of the civic authorities, accepting directions from the mayor, but fighting fire and famine with characteristic energy at every point. It is unnecessary to tell again the story of the losing fight. When ammunition was exhausted even Bunker Hill was relinquished, and from the outset, water, the only ammunition with which fire can be fought, was lacking. Dynamite accomplished something, but even dynamite gave out, and it was the width of Van Ness avenue which enabled a last successful final stand to be made, and a nucleus saved for the rebuilding of the city.

The army fought the fire as the allies of the people of the city, and even while it was raging opened its hospitals and tents and gave of its commissary stores and blankets for the refugees. There was no hesitation in Washington in giving moral, official, and financial support to these emergency measures. A million dollars was spent by the secretary of war in purchasing and forwarding new supplies before Congress could act, and Congress has never acted more quickly or generously than upon this occasion.

General Greely returned instantly to San Francisco, sacrificing his plan for attending his daughter's wedding, and, reserving to himself the questions of policy involving relations between the army and the civil authorities and with the work of voluntary relief, restored to General Funston the actual direction of the troops in and about San Francisco as a legitimate part of his work as department commander. The questions of policy were serious, and of a delicate nature, requiring tact, faithful compliance

with the law whenever possible, and yet a willingness to face new situations and accept responsibility for unprecedented measures.

One other agency, second only in importance to the army, must not be overlooked, the presence which caused one of the numerous complications with which General Greely, Governor Pardee and Mayor Schmitz have had to deal. This is the national guard of California. Governor Pardee has held, and with entire justice, that the state is responsible for the maintenance of order, and has refused, even on the request of the mayor and the Committee of Fifty, to withdraw entirely the national guard. An arrangement was soon effected by which one or more of the districts into which the city was divided for military purposes were to be assigned to the militia, while the entire responsibility for such military force as was necessary in Oakland and other places affected outside San Francisco was also assumed by them. The national guard, like the army, did efficient work and the criticisms which were showered so freely in the newspaper dispatches and current rumors of the first few days appear to have little if any foundation.

The Early Food Distribution.

Under the direction of the mayor's food committee, of which an influential Jewish rabbi, Dr. J. Voorsanger, was chairman and among whose energetic associates were John Drumm and Oscar Cooper, there sprang up about 150 food stations from which food was given to any who came. At the maximum 500 drays and trucks were employed merely in supplying these stations. A formal request was made by the civil and relief authorities that the army should take over the entire responsibility for receiving food and other supplies whether consigned to the army or not, and to this request General Greely gave prompt assent. At first the quartermaster only received the consignments at the docks and railway stations and transported them to central warehouses, but a few days later, by formal request, General Greely consented to become responsible also for transporting them from the warehouses to the food

stations. The economy and efficiency of the government service is indicated by the fact that on the second day after this transfer, the number of teams had been reduced from five hundred to less than two hundred, effecting at one stroke an administrative economy of over \$3,000 a day.

In this simple item is reflected the entire argument for the course which was adopted. The army had the organization, the equipment, the trained officers and men for dealing with the situation, and no one else had it or could create it except at enormous expense, and with inevitable waste. Tents, blankets, and subsistence were required instantly. The army had them, and with the funds promptly voted by Congress at its disposal could keep an almost constant inflow of them in operation until the emergent need was supplied. It was therefore evident that the army must undertake it.

On the receipt of the usual precautionary telegrams from the war department that certain things were being done without warrant of the law, General Greely offered in writing to turn over the administration of the supplies to the National Red Cross, but instant assurance was given him by its special representative that this would be physically impossible, and that in the interests of humanity it was imperative that the facilities of the army should continue to be at the disposal of those who were doing the relief work. At the same time it was mutually agreed that the responsibility for registration and discrimination among those who apply for relief, and the administration of any relief measures, other than the receiving, storing, and transporting of food, clothing and other relief stores could not properly devolve on the army but must be assumed by the Red Cross with the financial co-operation of the Finance Committee of Relief and Red Cross Funds.

It was therefore to these tasks that the writer, as special representative of the National Red Cross, instructed by its president, the secretary of war, to come to San Francisco for this purpose, addressed his attention, after having aided in effecting a concentration of all large

relief funds in the hands of the finance committee, and securing the necessary co-ordination of the numerous voluntary agencies which were ready and anxious to do what was most necessary and helpful.

The conditions of the problems to be faced were:

The Problem Faced.

The extraordinary number of persons suddenly bereft of their homes, furniture, clothing, and means of livelihood. When the army assumed charge of the distribution of food there were requisitions daily for 260,000 men, women and children. There were probably not actually so many persons receiving free food, but including the leakage from thefts and waste for several days in the beginning of May this amount of food was supplied from the warehouses of the commissary department.

The sudden cessation of employment. The clearing of debris did not begin promptly because of the uncertainties in regard to insurance. Property owners were in doubt whether the conditions should not remain as they were until it could be definitely ascertained whether their particular individual losses were due to fire or to earthquake. Moreover the moving of the debris could not begin until facilities had been provided for disposing of it, and this involved preliminary extension of steam-railway lines.

The absence of restaurants, markets, groceries, and other retail or wholesale provision stores. Even those who had money or credit could not buy without traveling long, often utterly impossible distances. All the railways were exerting their utmost capacity to handle the relief supplies, and it was impossible for regular dealers, even if they could secure store rooms, to obtain provisions.

Finally, the psychological element cannot be disregarded. People found themselves in strange surroundings. Families were separated. Every one had new neighbors. The nerves were unstrung. Slight daily shocks kept alive the sensations of the original catastrophe. Even acquaintances looked unfamiliar. No one knew whether the banks were solvent,

and the necessity for the cooling of vaults gave a welcome reprieve to their directors while they counted their assets. Saloons were closed, fortunately for peace and order, but the sudden compulsory change of drinking habits doubtless helped to produce in some the dazed condition in which for one reason or another every one confessed that he occasionally found himself. It must be said however that the people did not lose their heads. From the mayor and the military officers down to the humblest families in the Protrero, there have been a sanity, a good-humored acquiescence in the hardships of the situation, and an optimism which are inspiring. Nor must it be imagined because there has been little complaint and no disorder, that there have been no privations, and that the entire affair is nothing more than a holiday in camp. It is true that the out-door life in this climate is in itself beneficial to the health and spirits, and that the reversion to a simple manner of life has its advantages; but the monotony of the uncooked food, the cold drenching rain on some nights while there were many still under light canvas which gave almost no protection, the prohibition of the use of unboiled water, and the absence of any facilities for boiling it, the long, dreary wait in the bread line for a quarter of a million people, scarcely any of whom had ever asked charity in their lives—these things are a joke only to those who have in them the good stuff of a frontier philosophy. The question now is whether the patience and the unquenchable spirit of all these people will endure to the end of the experience, and whether the process of absorption into normal industrial life will take place with the rapidity and completeness which are essential if San Francisco is to remain what it has been, and to become what it has seemed to promise. Of this I have no doubt, although the herculean undertaking is certainly unique in the history of great disasters.

Early in May there was a very substantial reduction in the number of applicants for food at many of the stations. Beginning with Sunday, the 13th, rations were issued on alternate days only, and

only to those who had been properly registered and had been given food cards. We then took up actively the more constructive relief of individuals and families, which will speedily become the principal part of the relief work.

On May 4, the writer submitted to the Finance Committee of Relief and Red Cross Funds a communication outlining a general policy for the use of the funds at the disposal of the committee, which was considered at a conference attended on invitation by Governor Pardee, Mayor Schmitz, General Greely, Archbishop Riordan, E. H. Harriman, J. F. Moors and Jacob Furth of Boston, and a few other gentlemen, besides a reasonably full representation of the finance committee. After an informal discussion, relating chiefly to the recommendation about relief employment, the letter was referred to a committee consisting of Archbishop Riordan, Governor Pardee, Mr. Harriman, Dr. Voorsanger and the writer. This committee met immediately after the adjournment of the conference, and agreed unanimously upon the following report which was submitted on the following day to the finance committee and adopted without a dissenting voice:

The communication submitted to the finance committee by Dr. Edward T. Devine, and referred to this committee for consideration, contained six recommendations, all of which meet with our approval except that relating to emergency employment for men and women, which we consider inadvisable.

Restating the suggestions which we endorse, and assuming that the supply of food and of clothing will be continued until the absolute need in these directions is met, we respectfully recommend:

I. That the opening of cheap restaurants be encouraged and facilitated by the sale to responsible persons at army contract prices of any surplus stores now in hand or en route, the proceeds to be turned into the relief fund to be expended in the purchase of the same or other supplies as the finance committee or its purchasing agents may direct.

II. That definite provision be made for the maintenance of the permanent private hospitals which are in position to care for free patients, by the payment at the rate of \$10 per week for the care of patients who are unable to pay, and that after an accurate estimate has been made of the number of beds in each hospital, a sufficient sum be appropriated for this purpose.

III. That provision be made on some carefully devised plan for the care during the coming year of convalescent patients, and for the care of aged and infirm persons for whom there is not already sufficient provision.

IV. That on the basis of the registration now in progress and subsequent inquiry into the facts in such cases, special relief in the form of tools, implements, household furniture, and sewing machines, or in any other form which may be approved by the committee, be supplied to individuals and families found to be in need of such relief, that the administration of this special relief fund be entrusted to a committee of seven members to be appointed by the chairman of the finance committee, with such paid service at its disposal as the special relief committee may find necessary, and that as soon as practicable a definite date be fixed after which applications for aid from the Relief and Red Cross Funds cannot be considered.

The registration was entrusted, as early as April 25, to Dr. C. C. Plehn of the University of California, and was completed in the second week of May, with the assistance of the Associated Charities and a large corps of public school teachers whose services were tendered by the superintendent of schools, A. Ronconvieri. The issue of food tickets was based upon this registration as soon as it was completed, as well as the larger questions of more constructive relief contemplated in the fourth section of the report.

The employment bureau was opened on May 1, under the supervision of the State Labor Commissioner, W. V. Stafford. At this writing the bureau has been more

successful in registering applicants for work than in finding employment for them. It was hoped in May that employment on a more commensurate scale would be offered, but there is nothing in the situation now to encourage the idea that there would be immediately any large demand for imported labor. It must be borne in mind that San Francisco has suddenly greatly reduced its population, its industries, its available dwellings, its transportation facilities, and all its machinery for commercial and industrial activity. These things will return, but they cannot be rebuilt in a month. Municipal expenditures must be and are to be, reduced, and although there need be none of the distressing features of an industrial depression, it must be recognized that the scale of employment and of business is temporarily reduced by forces beyond immediate control.

This is not the time for anyone to attempt to distribute credit for the progress made in the first six weeks after the disaster. Indeed, where all have done well, it is doubtful whether it will ever be possible to tell who most deserves special mention in this connection. The California branch of the Red Cross, led by Judge W. W. Morrow and Mrs. J. F. Merrill, has followed a course which is entitled to the highest praise. The Red Cross, the Associated Charities and many other agencies which might have insisted upon separate recognition and independent action, have merged their resources and their personal service under the inspiring program of organization that is co-ordination of forces rather than organization that is exploitation of separate interests. An impartial story of what has happened, however, is promised by the early creation of a committee on history which diligently began the collection of materials before the ashes of the fire were cold. Of this committee the distinguished historian Professor H. Morse Stephens is a member and there are associated with him some of the most capable of the young men who were in the thick of the relief work from the beginning.

The Sanitary Situation at San Francisco

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It is not a simple task to sift the great mass of official reports, personal accounts and individual opinions at hand and pick out the facts of real sanitary importance regarding the San Francisco situation. It is a situation of unparalleled magnitude. At this distance of three thousand miles the conditions seem to be remarkably complex and diverse. It would be folly to attempt to enumerate all the steps which should be taken to preserve the public health without a closer and more accurate knowledge of the conditions.

Still, some of the larger aspects of the case can be fairly well understood. Cities have been destroyed before and large numbers of persons rendered homeless. We have had great fires at Boston, Chicago and Baltimore and great floods at Johnstown, the Sea Islands, the Mississippi Valley and Galveston. On more than one occasion our militia have been unexpectedly and hurriedly rushed into camp. The experience gained in caring for large numbers of people in all of these situations is available now to indicate some of the things which should be done in California.

So far as the question of disease is concerned, it seems probable that the survivors of the earthquake have all their dangers before them. There is not, and has not been, any chance of pestilence. The conditions which caused alarm at first were not ones to which any great significance need have been attached. The very conspicuousness of these conditions insured their prompt correction.

The ways in which disease breaks out under such circumstances as exist in the refuge camps of California are the same in which they spread under ordinary conditions. The only difference is that where crowding, confusion and disorder prevail, the paths of infection are apt to be unusually numerous and direct. Obviously it is desirable that the number of people to be cared for in the western camps should be as small as possible and their accommodations unusually ample and orderly.

The principles of prevention are the same everywhere. The most important rule to remember in this direction is that infectious matters, by which is meant, chiefly, the bacteria-infested excretions of the sick, must be discovered and destroyed as soon as possible after they are produced.

If epidemics break out in the camps about San Francisco, they will occur because disease already exists among the refugees, or is brought among them by visitors. The danger of disease at Galveston did not lie, as was commonly supposed, in the fact that thousands of dead and decomposing bodies lay scattered over the wreck. The danger lay among the survivors in the refuge camps and among the tramps, adventurers and other objectionable characters who flocked to the scene in great numbers to get in line with the relief funds. The chief danger is always from the living, not the dead.

It is inevitable that some disease will exist at San Francisco. Some cases of infectious diseases are always present among large numbers of people. But, with proper health work, there should be no epidemics. Without capable health management any number of diseases may become prevalent.

Probably the greatest danger which the San Franciscans will have to face is typhoid fever—the last of the filth diseases to be banished from civilized countries. That the danger of typhoid is unusually great in large camps has been abundantly demonstrated in every war except that between Russia and Japan.

Typhoid fever has been well called the ubiquitous disease. It exists everywhere and at all seasons and among all classes. It is the greatest scourge of armies in the field and one of the most familiar diseases of our homes under circumstances of our own making. There is no so-called pestilential disease which at all compares with it in the annual number of its victims. The San Francisco camps will have to guard against typhoid fever as they will have to guard against famine.

There seems reason to believe that the relief work will be carried on more effectively than has ever been known before and it is sincerely hoped that that branch of the work which has to do with the protection of the public health will be unexampled for vigorous and enlightened methods.

The resources at the command of the health authority are not known, but they should be abundant and generous in the highest degree. Money will be needed and something more than money. Men will be required who are skilled in the most recent methods of preventing disease. This is not medical work and physicians are rarely fitted for it. The training which physicians receive, even at the foremost medical schools, gives them no adequate preparation for such duties. Skill in this direction is to be had only in the school of experience. The outlook for the sanitary welfare of the camps depends upon the amount and kind of this sort of ability which the health authority can command.

One thing will be indispensable to the success of the health organization and that is the co-operation of the public. Although of the most competent character, the work of the health bureau cannot be successful without the confidence and co-operation of the people among whom the work is done. The utmost importance attaches to this matter.

It would be advantageous if there was distributed immediately and widely a knowledge of the objects and methods of the health authority. Secrecy as to the true condition of the public health and of the measures necessary to protect it always destroys public confidence and sometimes leads to more disastrous consequences. It is, unfortunately, very common for health boards to withhold unpleasant information of this kind as long as possible with the idea that it may interfere with trade, alarm the public unnecessarily, or invite criticism.

**Some
Practical
Suggestions.**

The measures which have been found most practical and effective in protecting the health of survivors of great disasters and people in cities at times of great sanitary emergency are far too numerous

and technical in character to be detailed in this brief article. Still, at the request of the editors of this magazine, a few tentative suggestions, drawn largely from the writer's experience, are here offered.

The chief sanitary precautions necessary seem to be the protection of the food and water supplies against excretal and other contamination, the separation of persons suffering from communicable diseases from healthy persons and disinfection.

As food supplies often play an important part in the spread of disease, and especially typhoid fever, it may be well to remember that the sanitary authority has the power to control the purity of these articles as they come into camp by regulations enforced through inspection.

Food, however, is quite as likely to receive contamination in the household and after it is cooked, as before. Protection in this direction must rest largely with the consumers. All that the authority can do is to instruct and advise as to the ways in which food should be protected against contamination through flies, dust and particularly the hands of sick persons and nurses.

The campers will do much to protect themselves against disease if they will make it a point to confine themselves, as far as possible, to cooked food.

Fresh milk is safe only when it is boiled.

It is desirable that an active warfare be carried on against flies and other insects, and to this end a degree of cleanliness and neatness should be required in the camps which it will be very difficult to attain. Still if the people understand the necessity for care in this direction, and are shown that there is nothing personal about the orders and requirements of the health authority, it will not be impossible to secure their active co-operation in this direction.

The wholesale use of mosquito netting should be encouraged. It is a very valuable aid in protecting food against flies, in keeping insects away from infectious matters which have to remain for a time exposed to the air, and in screening the sick and the well where malaria is prevalent.

**In the
Permanent
Camps.**

As some of the camps will probably be occupied for many months, it is desirable that they should be equipped with some of the principal aids to municipal sanitation. Systems of underground drainage and water supply would prove the most valuable of these aids. Indeed, if a system of water carriage could be instituted for the removal of excreta, it would afford one of the most reliable barriers against typhoid fever and other diarrheal diseases which could be instituted.

If a sewerage system is not a possibility, the public latrines should be so built that the contents could be subjected to continual disinfection until they can be burned or ploughed into the soil. Private latrines would greatly add to the difficulties of caring for the sanitary situation.

After the Ithaca epidemic it was found possible to dispose of over 400,000 gallons of night soil by ploughing it into twelve acres of poor ground. Later, a successful crop of corn was grown upon the field. The work was done with great care and practically no unpleasant odors were produced. The material was transported in air-tight barrels. Investigations by a trained entomologist showed that the danger from flies was negligible.

It seems hardly necessary to point out that private wells should not be allowed in the camps. The water supplies should be as few in number and as abundant in quantity as it is physically possible to make them. The excellent character of the public water supply at Galveston was the salvation of that city after the flood. Without it, it would have been necessary to abandon the site. The purity of the water should, and no doubt will, be one of the chief concerns of the sanitary authority in California.

It is desirable that strict rules should be made and enforced with regard to the disposal of garbage, for household carelessness in this matter encourages corresponding carelessness in other sanitary directions of far more vital significance. Little difficulty will be found in inducing the people to place their garbage in proper places if an adequate and reliable

system of collection is provided by the health authority.

Since the destruction of their homes, some of the survivors have probably found shelter in shacks hastily built from the remains of the fire. Experience shows that many of these impoverished shelters may soon become, if not regulated, wholly unfit for human occupancy. It would be well if all persons who have not found proper shelter in houses should be required to live in the camps. Under such circumstances only can their habits be kept under strict sanitary supervision.

**Instructing
the Public.**

Inasmuch as a series of bulletins, or sanitary regulations, for the guidance of the people have been issued elsewhere to advantage, similar public notices might prove useful in California. These bulletins should contain instructions as to the cleaning of premises, the sanitary care of household effects such as bedding and cooking utensils, the disposal of garbage and other wastes, the methods of using deodorants and disinfectants properly and the need of proper precautions in the matter of diet.

The instructions given with respect to the use of disinfectants should be especially brief, clear and sufficient, for there is much popular misinformation regarding this subject.

The simplest disinfectants will be found the best and, as far as possible, those which have no odor should be given the preference. At Johnstown and Galveston thousands of barrels of quick-lime were used to make milk of lime or white-wash. This was given the preference over the patented disinfectants which were contributed as relief stores.

During the typhoid epidemics at Ithaca and Watertown, N. Y., wagons were employed to make daily rounds and distribute milk of lime, or "white fluid," as it was called, wherever there was a case of fever. The milk of lime was prepared by slakeing one part of quick lime in four parts of water. This mixture was used, as all disinfectants should be used, by mixing it thoroughly with the matter to be disinfected. There is no better disinfectant for camp or household use in typhoid fever.

A second disinfectant which was found useful was made by dissolving one part of bichloride of mercury in a thousand parts of water. This was called "blue fluid." The solution was acidified with hydrochloric acid and colored blue with common blueing to guard against its being swallowed by accident, although it is not very poisonous in small quantities. The blue fluid was used in a number of ways for which the white fluid was unsuitable. It was especially useful in washing the hands, clothing and other articles, except metals, which were thought to be infested with pathogenic bacteria.

**Women
Inspectors:
A Laboratory.** A corps of sanitary inspectors will, of course, be employed in the California camps, and it is desirable that they should be especially capable and responsible. They will move about among the people and see that the regulations of the sanitary authority are properly carried out. It is desirable that they should be persons of unusual intelligence in order that they may supplement and interpret the printed directions of the health authority with sensible counsel and advice. In view of the fact that it may be difficult to obtain capable men for this purpose, it might be feasible to organize a corps of women inspectors.

Cases of disease which are capable of becoming epidemic should be watched for by the sanitary inspectors and physicians with the greatest vigilance, particularly in those places where the evils of overcrowding are most likely to occur. It is desirable that special care should be taken to detect the existence of

mild, unusual and atypical cases of infectious disease, since an epidemic is not so likely to spread from severe cases as from mild ones. It is not the patient who is sick in bed and under the control of doctors and nurses, but the one who is able to hobble around among his neighbors or be about his business who is most likely to spread disease.

It is very important that ample hospital facilities be provided so that the sick may be promptly isolated and given ample opportunity to recover. Experience shows that such opportunities have not always existed at the scenes of great disasters in the past.

Although such hospital work as is here advocated is very expensive, it usually fully demonstrates its worth and costs less than the aggregate cost of nursing people properly at home.

Should mosquitoes of the *Anopheles* type or, in fact, any other type be abundant, work for their elimination should be undertaken. This will most suitably consist in the oiling of pools and other accumulations of stagnant water in the vicinity of the camps, so that the mosquito cannot propagate.

No scientific public health work can be carried on without a laboratory in which samples of food, water and milk may be examined to supplement the inspections in guarding against contamination. Here also specimens of blood, urine, sputum and other pathological matters can be analyzed. Although, to some persons, a laboratory may seem a superfluous adjunct to a refuge camp, its installation under the best circumstances possible should be earnestly advocated.

Relief Work in its Social Bearings

Mary Roberts Smith

[Mrs. Smith, who is engaged in a special investigation of Chinese immigration for Carnegie Institute, was in charge of South Park Settlement, San Francisco, at the time of the disaster.]

Although a relief committee was organized in San Francisco by the mayor within ten hours after the earthquake, it was impossible for any thorough system to be devised or put in operation for at least two weeks afterward. All that could be done was to keep order, provide

shelter as fast as possible, secure the necessary sanitary precautions and feed all who seemed to need it. Immense quantities of supplies of all sorts were received—General Greeley reported on April 30 that 7,000 tons had been distributed in the ten days preceding and

that \$150,000 per day was a conservative estimate of the cost of relief. During this time the population was incessantly shifting; refugees leaving the city; other refugees who had fled in the beginning of the fire returning; people moving from one camp to another as they found friends or fancied they would be more comfortable, and sightseers who began to rush in as soon as the order of exclusion was relaxed.

With the arrival of Dr. Devine, representing the Red Cross, and the determination to place all distribution of supplies in the hands of the army, it became necessary to district the city more carefully and to inaugurate a system of registration for all receiving relief. Professor Carl Plehn of the University of California, an expert census statistician, assisted by Professor Dupuy organized and carried out this system of registration with the assistance of a number of volunteer workers.¹

An army ration in amount about two-thirds of that which had been given previously, and consisting of meat, bread, coffee and tea, vegetables, dried fruit, sugar, vinegar, salt and pepper, soap and candles, was established. Delicacies were to be distributed only on the order of a physician.

The operation of the plan was greatly hindered by the numerous private relief stations throughout the city which could only gradually be persuaded to send their patrons to the public relief stations. For a number of days doubtless some families and individuals duplicated rations at the public and private stations. One volunteer worker in charge of a district of 6,000 people for the Associated Charities, went about through the tents accompanied by a soldier and demanded the return of extra hams, canned goods and potatoes, which had been laid in by thrifty refugees. Many cases of "cached" stores were reported to General Greeley but upon investigation it proved that the concealment of supplies at least in the cases reported had been somewhat exaggerated. Until the card registration

was completed on May 16 it was not possible to check this duplication appreciably. It can hardly be imagined what a colossal task it has been to merely register the persons receiving relief. It has been done by a corps of several hundred volunteers composed of charity and settlement workers, school teachers and students of the University of California and of Stanford University, and took about two weeks. While it was going on camps were frequently changed from one location to another for sanitary and other reasons and many who had been registered at one station were necessarily receiving relief at another. Before the registration it had been the custom for the refugee families to send as many children to the bread lines as possible, thus securing excessive relief.

With the progress of registration and systematization, a strong sentiment began to be formed against the presence of able-bodied men in the lines. At first, work at \$2.00 per day was repeatedly refused by these men, but as the system got into some sort of order, the army officers in charge of supplies shut out all such men who refused work when offered. Naturally the first work to be done was clearing up debris, and this was hard and extremely disagreeable on account of the clouds of lime and brick dust and the heat of smouldering ruins. Thousands of men were wanted in the outlying country all up and down the coast on construction and other works, but skilled mechanics would not leave the city, and many common laborers would not budge so long as there was prospect of food without too much work. For the married men there was some excuse; for the wives and children living in shacks and tents were afraid to stay alone while the father went away to a country job. Single men, however, have been more and more severely dealt with by the relief agents.

The single men comprised not only many laborers and skilled mechanics, but some thousands of clerks and "soft-handed" young men of one occupation and another who were scarcely fit for heavy manual labor, and even with the best will in the world, were not worth a

¹It had been reported to General Greeley on April 28 that over 300,000 persons were receiving rations, and although this was doubtless an exaggeration, there were issued as late as May 3 supplies to 261,000 persons.

dollar and a half a day to a contractor. These men are gradually scattering through the country where they will temporarily find small jobs and shortly be able to make fair wages picking fruit. They will as certainly drift back to San Francisco at the earliest moment, perhaps to constitute an unstable and somewhat helpless element for months to come.

Just at present skilled mechanics must do any kind of manual labor if they stay in the city, but in a month or two at most, all of them will be absorbed by the gigantic building operations which are planned. Already plasterers are receiving \$7.00 per day, and in a few places where work is being rushed, men of special skill are receiving a dollar an hour and a half more for overtime. With the California harvests coming on for which a labor famine was predicted even before the fire, and with the cumulative demands of building operations in the city, manual laborers will shortly be receiving the highest wages known for years in a state always known for its high wage scale.

The continued hardships will fall upon women and girls who have no adequate male support, who have earned their living as clerks, in offices, in the sewing trades and in factories. These are unwilling to go into domestic service in the country where there is an immense demand for them, because of a deep-rooted prejudice against it as well as because of lack of any skill. They, like the clerks and the small tradesmen, may drift to the fruit districts for a while in some numbers, but they are sure to suffer much until they can get back into the narrow groove of their limited occupations. Employers in many instances are advertising to care for employees needing assistance, but it will not be possible for this to go on for more than a month or two at most.

The class which has suffered most in proportion to its resources, is perhaps the professional class, and especially the physicians. It is reported that about five hundred doctors were burned out; it is certain that the greater majority of the physicians of the city had offices in the burned districts, and many their residences also. The lower part of Sutter

street, for instance, between Hyde and Kearney, had hundreds of them. Nearly all lost libraries, instruments, records, their outstanding accounts and their patients—all together. The heroism of these destitute men and women who went to work in the midst of the disaster for the public without thinking apparently of where their next meal was to come from, is beyond praise. San Francisco was known to have a very large proportion of doctors to its population, and for a great number of them this means extreme poverty for a long time to come. Suffering under circumstances such as these in San Francisco, aside from the tragedy of loss of friends and of sickness, may be proportioned to the degree of comfort in which the sufferer had been accustomed to live. Measured by this standard, the rather unthrifty and comfortably living classes will suffer most.

At this date (May 16) the registration is still reported at 200,000 receiving relief. The railroads report that they have carried away 225,000. It is evident that for one reason and another a large number of men must be taking relief still if these figures are correct. Doubtless the number will fall rather rapidly as the persons in charge of relief are able to "round up" the repeaters and those who can perfectly well support themselves. To promote this elimination as fast as possible two measures are being pressed. The smaller camps are being concentrated into a few large ones where good floored tents, proper sanitary arrangements and rations are provided. It will be much easier to handle the population in these well equipped and disciplined colonies, although the moving entails confusion and hardship both on the relief officers and the refugees.

Still more important is the establishment of community kitchens under Major Febiger, where hot fifteen cent meals may be had. Five of these kitchens are now in successful operation in the most congested districts. As fast as a kitchen is in operation, rations are stopped in that district. Those who are at work or able to pay, pay a uniform price of fifteen cents; the rest present a free ticket which they obtain by registration. The

number receiving free tickets is gradually falling, and the comfort of hot meals is greatly appreciated. The contractor is expecting to feed 50,000 people ultimately. The menu and general supervision is still in the hands of the army.

A third means of reducing the free list is the employment bureau established by the Red Cross.

The courage and energy of the population of San Francisco in the face not only of disaster but of extreme terror and sudden homelessness has not been exaggerated, but to a great many the full effect of the strain is not even yet apparent. The discomforts of living, in spite of adequate relief, are very great. Wind and fog—for the weather has been unusually cold for a month—dust unspeakable, cooking out of doors in camps and streets, lack of water for toilet appliances, the incessant boiling of water and milk for fear of fever, absence of light and means of transportation for some time—in short, the total uprooting of all

the ordinary habits of life, is bearing more and more heavily on the women and children. Schools are closed, thus turning thousands of children literally into the ruined streets. It is now proposed to have a vacation school in Golden Gate park for the children in camps there, but this is only a very small part of the whole number.

And for those who stay by the city much of this discomfort will go on for several months to come. That under such circumstances men and women become apathetic and lose pride and self-respect when they can no longer endure the strain of petty hardships, is not surprising. Archbishop Riordan, on his way to the scene of the disaster, is said to have predicted, as the worst effect of it, the deterioration of health and character which would be its inevitable result upon those who are not of the exceptional stuff of which heroes and pioneers are made.

Social Settlements in the San Francisco Disaster

James E. Rogers

Herein is a short, rather an inadequate, account of what befell three of San Francisco's institutions, which have held a position of leadership in the educational and philanthropic field. The buildings of the South Park Settlement, the Telegraph Hill Neighborhood House and the Columbia Park Boys' Club were swept to ashes. Yet we must not say that their work has been in vain. It lives in the minds and hearts of men, women, and children of this municipality who have endured much within the last few weeks. The manly perseverance and spiritual optimism that has marked the rebuilding of the new and greater San Francisco is manifested again, in the present efforts of the workers of these settlements, in their eager determination to rebuild and continue their labors with the people of their respective neighborhoods.

The South Park Settlement is a pioneer philanthropic work in San Francisco having been established for nearly fifteen years. For the past few years this settlement had occupied a well equipped

building at 86 South Park, the gift of Mrs. Phoebe Hearst, at a cost of \$25,000. This settlement has been a vital power in the neighborhood and stood high in the estimation of the community. The workers were recruited in part from the universities of California and Stanford. Some lived at the settlement and entered freely into the lives of the people, working and living with them. The headworker, Miss Lucile Eaves went a year ago to New York to secure the degree of doctor of philosophy at Columbia University. She is now in the city working under appointment of the New York State Red Cross. During her absence Dr. Mary R. Smith, late of Stanford University and attached at present to the Carnegie Institute, had assumed temporarily the duties of headworker. There were the regular adult and children's clubs, lectures, entertainments, concerts, etc., and those other activities that make for a well-regulated and modern settlement. The South Park Settlement has held a distinctive position in the in-

dustrial circles of San Francisco and did much for the improvement of labor conditions and a better understanding between employer and employe.

The Telegraph Hill Neighborhood Association situated in the congested and nearly poverty-stricken Latin quarter about historic Telegraph Hill, can number its years to fully a dozen. The special number of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS on *The Visiting Nurse*,¹ contained a brief sketch of this work, which had won the hearts of its Italian and Mexican friends—a work conducted under the direction of Miss A. S. Griffith, Mrs. L. L. McLaren, and Miss Elizabeth Ashe. There were boys' clubs and girls' clubs, the clinic, the clothing bureau and the day nursery. These many branches of social service were at first housed in separate homes, but the renting of a large neighborhood house gave dwelling to all clubs and the clothing bureau; the clinic and nursery retaining their separate quarters. Through the zeal of Miss Ashe, the clinic and visiting nurse developed a widening influence for welfare.²

Miss Ashe, who was in Europe on a six months' vacation, hastened home and is at present conducting a convalescent home at the Hill Farm in Marin county, a country site beautifully situated, covering many acres of land. Here also have been gathered the people of the neighborhood and the boys and girls of the different clubs so that re-organization may take place at once.

As with the others, the Columbia Park Boys' Club had a speciality, for it was particularly interested in the boy-problem,—in making intelligent citizens, honest workmen and good parents. The club was organized in December, 1895, and has occupied its club-building at 318 Eleventh street, since August, 1898. It was situated in the heart of that district south of Market street, known in the

boys' vernacular, as "south of the slot." Although it had no regular clubs for adults, enthusiasm was displayed by the parents on many occasions. The aim of the club has been primarily educational. In a large, roomy club-house, neighborhood members could use a carefully chosen library, a game-room, a meeting room, a gymnasium, an armory, and work rooms given over to arts and crafts. Here a boy could take part in the chorus, in the band, in the entertainments, athletic and dramatic. Particular emphasis has always been put on the human unit—toward the development of the individual and the fullest possible expression of a boy's personality. The Columbia Park Boys' Club became what it is, in great part, because of its leader Sidney S. Peixotto, who for years has given of his life to the boys of the club. Through his energies funds have already been raised to assure the rebuilding of this unique experiment in boys' clubs. In the meantime about one hundred boys are to go camping at Carmel-by-the-Sea for a period of two months, many of the club members having been rendered homeless by the fire. The city under present conditions offers little for the children but long hot summer days with nothing to do. Here lies the root of much evil. These hundred boys go to establish the fifth annual "State of Columbia," a junior republic, of which the writer is the founder. Here the boys learn the common tenets that bind all societies, in summer camps in which a bit of sociology and sport are harmoniously mixed.

In kindred spirit and success Miss Ray Wolfsohn, conducted the Girls' Club located at 215 Seventh street. Already she has gathered her flock together and her personality is such as to assure a new club house for them. Mention should be made here also of the individual work of Miss Octavine Briggs, a pioneer nurse who independently undertook the task of taking over the care of a neighborhood. She had gathered about her many devoted friends who derived much inspiration from their leader. Miss Briggs attempted no definite institutional

¹ April 7, 1906.

² The Clinic records for 1905 showed a total of 2,133 cases; 2 regular nurses, 859 new cases, 2,484 house visits and 3,959 treatments in dispensary, 1,020 in kindergartens, 375 medical cases and 84 surgical cases.

There were 200 skin cases, 62 eye, 67 ear, nose and throat, and 51 gynaecology.

work but lived in a home among the people where she welcomed all who desired to receive her hospitality. Here the people gathered informally. Here was a center from which radiated all those influences that come from a home where the "art of living" had become a

practical reality. This home also was not saved from the fire.

Other institutions and individuals may not be mentioned in detail. Suffice it to say, their spirit has not been destroyed—it will find its place in the new community life.

Purposelessness and the Church Club

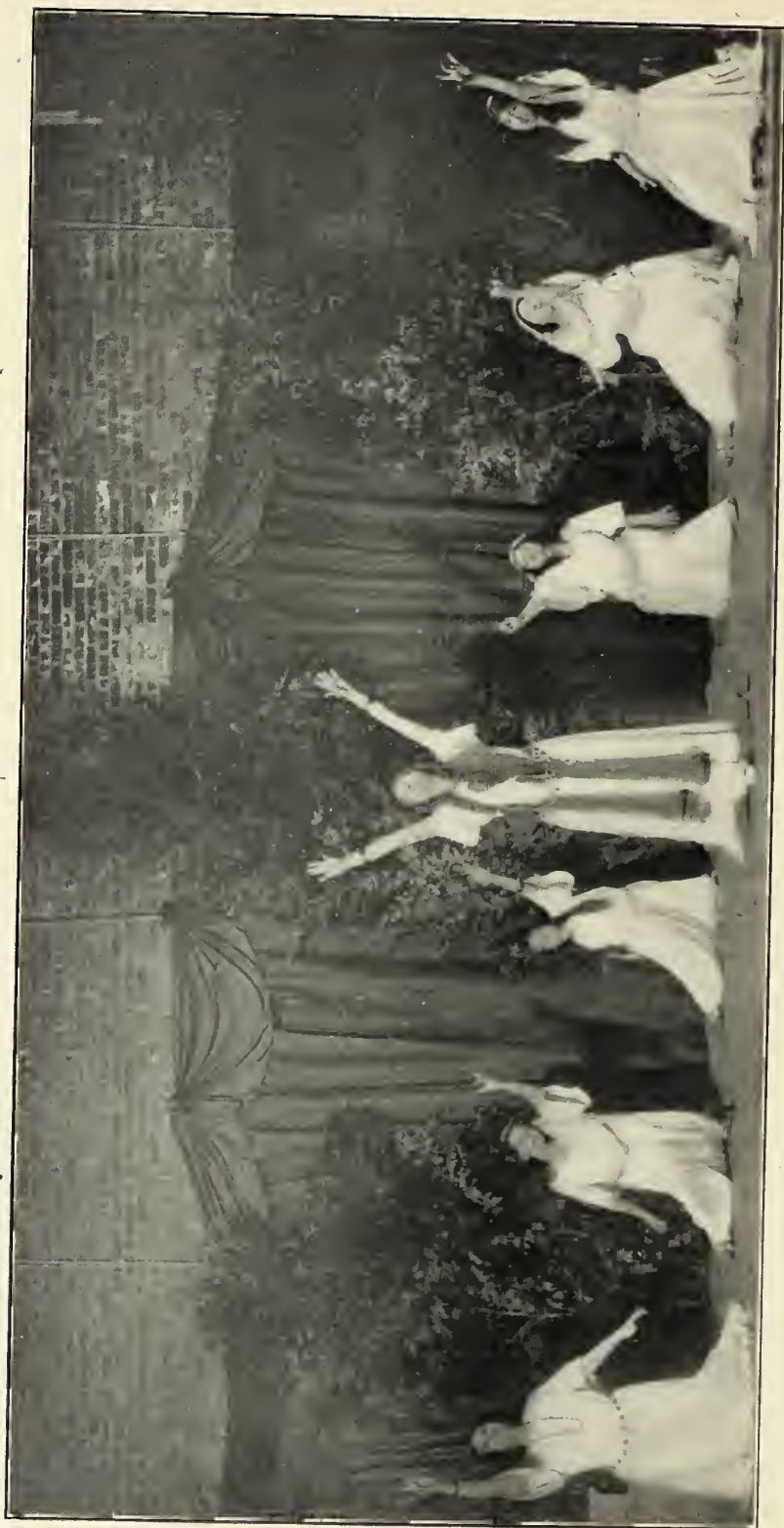
Gaylord S. White

Union Settlement, New York

Anyone who has had to do with men's associations connected with the churches and formed for the purpose of "getting hold" of men, knows the difficulty of making the association worth while. Occasionally an association contains a guiding genius who discovers some useful piece of work for the members to undertake, but usually the association soon exhausts its resources of sociability and from the lack of a definite and practical purpose, interest flags and the membership dwindles away. That an opportunity is going to waste is apparent, and how to prevent this social waste is the question. Is there any reason why these associations should not become centers of civic and social interest, and sources of influence in the making of public opinion? The average man, engrossed in business, has little time to devote to questions of social and civic and industrial progress. And yet his intelligent interest in such matters is of vital importance, if progress is to be made. Take, for example, the question of child labor. How many business and professional men are familiar with the conditions? Or take the question of the prevention of tuberculosis, or the mendicancy problem, or the work of organized charity and the principles which should govern relief—how important is it that correct information upon these and many kindred subjects should be in the possession of such men as are connected with the churches. What a power these men could exert in the formation of public opinion that would demand improvement. The past

winter it has happened that bills introduced into the New York legislature at Albany as a result of the report of the state probation commission have been in need of intelligent support. Let us suppose that the need, the principles and the results of probation work had been effectively presented to the members of the men's clubs of our churches. Is it not probable that a body of opinion would have been created that could make itself felt at the state capital?

Already something is being done by individual clubs along the lines suggested. What is needed is some organized effort to bring to the attention of such clubs the opportunities that are within their reach, and so to cultivate an interest in questions of social economy. This might be attempted both within the clubs and without them. Perhaps a federation of church clubs of men is too much to hope for just yet; perhaps it would not be effective, if it existed. At all events some competent body, such in New York as the faculty of the School of Philanthropy, might organize a system of extension lectures of a popular and practical character, and offer to give single lectures or brief courses to associations of men. This offer need not be confined to church clubs. There are other organizations of men in settlements, in benevolent orders, in trade circles, which it is important to reach and arouse. That there would be a good response to some well-devised scheme of this kind, seems probable and the possibilities involved in the plan are surely large.



The triumphant entrance of Miriam had been preceded by songs of joy and thanksgiving. The high priestess, women and children, separate into groups on either side of the stage expectant of the moment when their prophetess will voice her faith in the Lord. The picture is just after Miriam and her maidens have entered. Miriam reverentially places her timbrels on the ground and slowly lifts her voice, singing, into the Lord. The maidens pantomime with her the thoughts suggested in the song.

The Settlement Movement

IV

The Social Value of the Festival

Rita Teresa Wallach

1

In considering the value of the festival from the modern social standpoint, it might be well to see what significance it has had in the education and development of the race. What were the beliefs and superstitions that so appealed to man's emotions, that he desired to give expression to them in ritual and ceremony?

Primitive man knew nothing of the laws that controlled the actions of nature, and interpreted physical forces as a manifestation of the divine spirit. He had no elaborate scientific theorem to propound, and it satisfied his imagination and spiritual craving to personify and deify natural phenomena. The sun, the moon, the cloud and the thunder were all objects for his adoration, and he wove about them beautiful bits of imagery in order to more satisfactorily explain the relations of the material world to himself. He had a wholesome fear and reverence for the unseen powers, upon whose kindness and good-will he was dependent for his existence; and it was important for him to propitiate the spiritual entity that was back of all material existence. The great changes of nature most aroused his awe and wonder, and we find the different nations celebrating the seasons in song and dance, according to their racial characteristics.

Here was the origin of the festival, and as the race developed, we have them formulated in the May-day, the harvest-home and the yule-tide,—joy at the renewal of life in the spring,—thanks for the promised fruits of the summer,—feasting and merriment that light and length of day are to be re-

stored. These days of childlike overflow of spirit and happy, creative activity have left us rich in tradition and legend, and have thrown over the past a rare poetic charm. To what use shall we moderns put this heritage, who are inclined to interpret all things according to sterner scientific law? Are there no longer sprites and pixies who go abroad the May-eve to get the world ready for its May-dress, or night-spirits who walk the earth foretelling strange dreams and testing lovers by various charms on the Halloween.

What place have these aesthetic outpourings of mind's spirit in the life of the child, and in the life of the community to-day. Some students of children believe that the child to be ideally educated must have in a selected curriculum those experiences which have been vital to his race. Where this scheme of education is followed, the emphasis usually falls on the industrial phases of development. Why should the child's life not also be enriched by reliving those experiences which in former times occupied man's leisure—when he still was unspoiled by the commercial spirit, and his spontaneous joy in the beauty of life caused him to express himself artistically in poetry, painting, song or dance. It was in the communal gathering of the festival that lord and lady, artist and artisan, freeman and serf participated, giving it a social character and unique position in the life of the people, for which modern drama has been unable to find a substitute.

We who believe so strenuously in the educational and artistic value of the festival feel that it should bear the same relation to the community to-day as it did to the race in previous eras. It is not so long ago that maidens gathered to wind the May-pole ribbons on the village green, and youth bestirred himself betimes to sing the round and Christmas carol.

We who live in a new land must also not forget that in some of the less sophisticated spots of the old world these festivities still play their part, and to wanderers how formal and colorless, devoid of all picturesque qualities must seem our way of celebrating great national events, or the seasonal changes of nature.

Several of the experimental schools are devoting their energies to festivals whose aim it is to recreate the artistic and literary heritage of the past, but it seems as if the settlements were particularly adapted to do valuable work in this direction. They are usually located in neighborhoods where one or two nationalities predominate, and thus the student and enthusiast has an opportunity to gain knowledge of the traditions, songs, and dances from original sources.

An interesting illustration of the amount of such material at hand came to light at a mothers' meeting some-time ago, at the Henry Street Settlement, New York. The formal program was ended, and the club-leader in charge wondered what she could do to give the meeting a more spontaneous character. She remembered in a panic-stricken way the well-known phrases of her kindergarten training, "spontaneity," "self-expression," "self activity." One Italian woman, bent, aged with work and life's burdens seemed especially desolate and uncheered by the Victor talking machine. The club-leader went to her, and revived the two Italian phrases she had picked up the preceding summer—"Come il sta" "bene" and then something about *Napoli* and dancing. The woman smiled, and with a little urging was on her feet dancing a most

intricate peasant dance. It was too beautiful and wonderful! Her Irish neighbor was not to be outdone, and she was soon up, jigging in a way to do old Ireland proud, and, others, most astonishing of all a mad pantomime was acted by two Russian women.

The evening was a brilliant success, and gave additional proof that here in New York we have a large artistic possession for which as yet we have found little use. Each neighborhood, be it Italian or Irish, Bohemian or Russian, has a historic background of tradition, and should not each settlement crystallize these traditions into art of such a character that it will be an inspiration to the larger world beyond. The different peoples would naturally express themselves variously, some having a greater dramatic tendency, and other talent in the world of arts and craft. It is probably difficult for the unimaginative American-born citizen to appreciate how little opportunity the foreigner has to voice his artistic yearnings. In his own country he may have been in an atmosphere that still cherished lovingly and reverentially the art of the past, when every workman felt that to live truly and nobly one had to express the master's spirit. Each highly wrought bit of marble, each exquisitely fragile Venetian vase, each brilliantly colored tapestry is an evidence of this dexterity of workmanship. Brought to a land of commercialism, living in large cities, and working in the factory or subway soon robs life of its possible beauties, and the hideous daily routine is only broken by the holidays which in their form of celebration savor only too much of that same commercial spirit.

Gone forever seem to be the May-day pageant, the yule-tide cheer, and the harvest-home frolic.

There is a movement underway to restore something of this old dignity and art, and to make the strangers realize that they have value in our eyes outside of their labor-producing power. The Greek play produced a few years ago in Chicago at Hull House, and in New York by the Greeks of these cities, was undertaken in this spirit. The revival of

Italian lace making in tenement neighborhoods is the same experiment along industrial lines. The young Italian girl once more executes the rare designs for

which her country is noted, and surely consciously or unconsciously she *weaves* into her work that richness of imagination which is peculiarly her own.



Miriam has finished her song and is dancing the battle dance which foretells of the victories to come to the children of Israel in the wilderness. The picture gives one of the many positions in the dance and suggests how dramatically the children interpreted the words of the Exodus.

II

The Henry Street Settlement, situated in a neighborhood composed for the

great part of Russian Jews, has put the emphasis on the dramatic inheritance. Thus far the work has been

mainly with the children, and for the last few years there has been a spring festival, in which an attempt has been made to reproduce the spirit of joy, and the glow of feeling that earlier civilizations felt at the re-birth of Nature. Last year a few of the eastern conceptions of spring were dramatized in song and pantomimic dance. We have always striven for simplicity of effect, and the interpretation has been symbolic rather than a detailed realism.

For a long time it has been an ideal of the settlement to have the neighborhood give expression to its own traditions, and by this means strengthen the relations between the older and younger members of the community. Should not the younger people appreciate and understand the dignity and beauty of those ceremonies and traditions which have had such significance for their race? There is a large chance in an age of hurry and materialism to let the old customs pass unheeded, not to see their importance in the domestic scheme. Can anything be more simple in character than the Friday night service nor more valuable in the family life? The lighting of the candles and the blessing of the Father surely help to harmonize the old spirit and the "new." For centuries many such customs have knit tight the family tie, and it is for those with influence, the school and the settlement to dignify and uphold them.

When this year's festival was under consideration, it seemed most appropriate to turn to the Old Testament for inspiration. Here we were confronted with a vast amount of dramatic material, but it was decided to still keep in mind the spring conception, and see how the ancient Hebrews interpreted it. The story of the Passover seemed to bear the same relation to Hebrew thought, as did the tale of Ceres and Persephone to the Greeks, or the saga of Baldur to the Norseman. Here, too, when mythologically interpreted, the captivity resembles the long wintry sleep of nature, and the flight from Egypt into the wilderness, the coming of light and freedom.

As the key-note of the festival we took the text in Exodus—

"And Miriam the prophetess, the sister of Aaron, took a timbrel in her hand; and all the women went out after her with timbrels and with dances.

"And Miriam answered them, Sing ye to the Lord, for he hath triumphed gloriously; the horse and his rider hath he thrown into the sea."

With this incident as a climax we tried to recreate the moment when Moses led the children of Israel across the Red Sea, and delivered them from their years of servitude.

A group representing the women, children and high priests marched in chanting their thanks to the Lord who in his mercy caused the sun to rule by day, and the moon and stars by night, —whose strong arm divided the Red Sea in sunder and made Israel to pass in the midst of it. In song and dance this little band of people voiced their faith in God's wisdom and love; and their hallelujahs rang with the spirit of thanks and rejoicing. For had not the Lord gone before them by day in a pillar of cloud to lead them the way; and by night in a pillar of fire to give them light, to go by day and night. This thought of guidance in their flight was symbolized in a garland dance, danced by those who represented the children. Miriam and her maidens with timbrels in their hands then entered, and Miriam sings unto the Lord for he hath let the children of Israel triumph gloriously. Her song ends with the prophecy that in the life of Israel, the Lord shall reign for ever and ever. In her dance we see the battles and the hardships that are to come upon the nation in the wilderness, with the promise of final victory. After her song and dance, the chorus took up the note of joy and triumph, and marched off, carrying into the distance their glad hallelujahs.

It might be interesting to know how the festival evolved,—how starting with a simple thought, and keeping close to the Biblical text, we at last presented a beautiful and inspiring scene. We took the Miriam incident as the

central thought, and grouped about it the songs, recitations, and dances which best told the story of the flight from Egypt. We searched laboriously for the traditional music, and were fortunate in securing the co-operation of a young Russian, who, full of enthusiasm for the idea, set the psalms selected to music of his own. He also undertook the training of the youthful chorus, and sang as high priest, the solo parts. We appreciated that the psalms selected were of a later date than our incident, but realism was not a motive, and the effect was rather made to re-create the spirit and atmosphere of the past. In order to bring the audience into closer sympathy with our festival, selections from the Exodus, in the form of a prologue were read, which told the story of the Passover, and the historic reasons for its celebration.

A word should be said of the attitude of the children who took part,—how they and those in charge were in tune with their subject—how full of vitality were the rehearsals, and how soon the whole neighborhood was sharing our experience. By way of preparation, the Bible stories were read and discussed in club time, so that those engaged in the festival might have a historic background for their actions.

There were three performances, so as to give the fathers, mothers and children, as well as the associates of the settlement, an opportunity to see it.

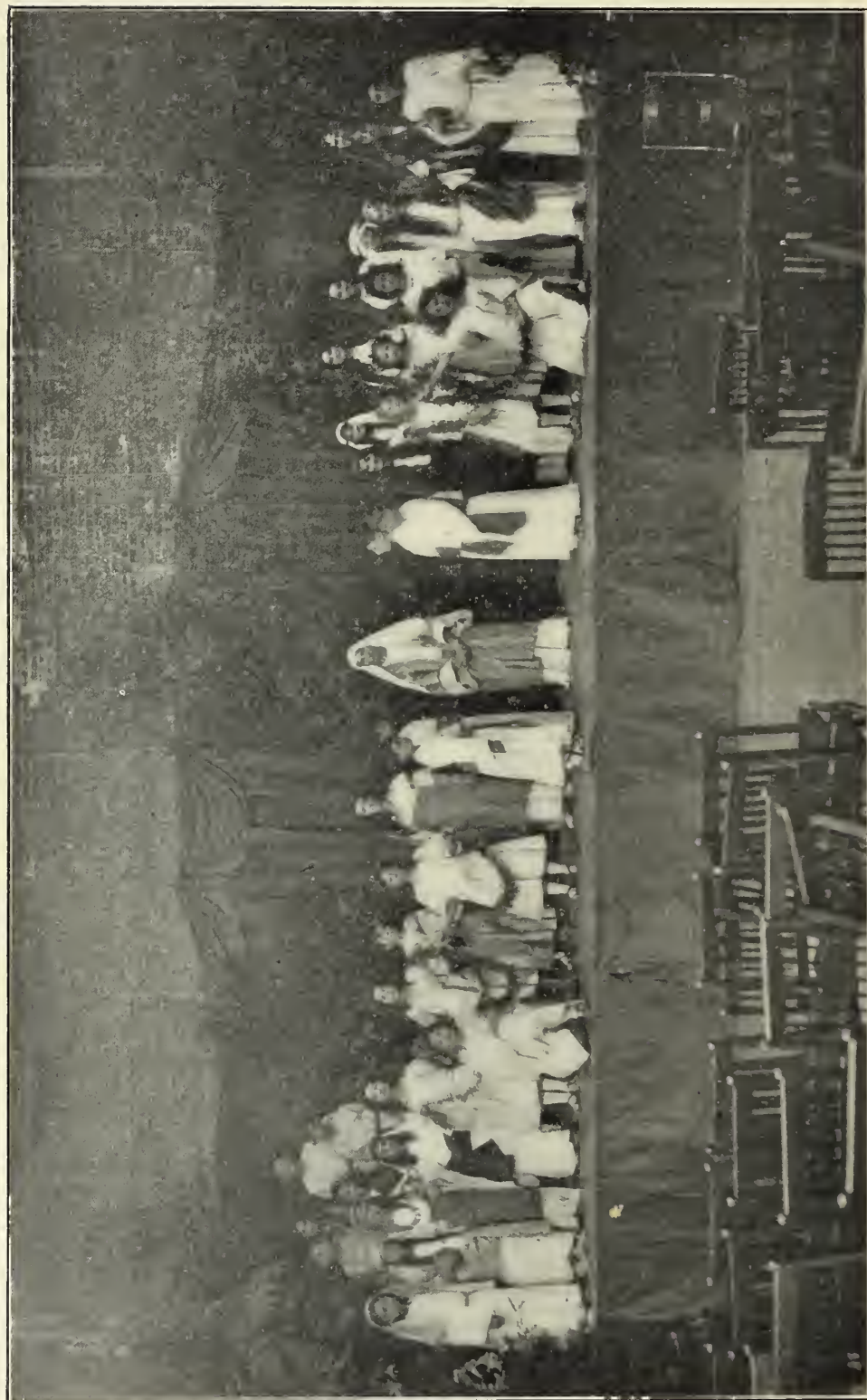
This festival so modestly conceived, the emphasis always falling on the thought of giving back to the neighborhood through the children, what was its own most beautiful and sacred heritage, received an appreciation and understanding that was beyond the greatest hopes of the originators. The audiences were tense with interest and religious feeling, and one could not but realize that the right note had been struck when one saw the moistened eyes of the "sheitelee" women

and the quivering lips of the grey-bearded men. "You show such respect to us, and our children," a father said to a member of the settlement, and she thought it higher praise than any bestowed by more learned critic. It was a stirring experience to feel that you and your neighbors were aglow with the same fervor for a sacred part, and that the settlement was trying to say to them in another way, how it regarded and cherished the religion of the law.

This festival is but a small beginning of what we hope will grow into a large neighborhood movement—each social



center alive to the interests and artistic possibilities of the nationalities about it. If we start in the spirit of the student cautiously feeling our way, the results may yet exceed our imaginations and longings, and may we not as a nation, young in art, and art's products yet receive from the older civilizations a new impetus and a leavening force to that commercialism which too often deprives mankind of its heritage of beauty? Let us be keen to hear the inner voice of the people who are calling to us, and perhaps we too can be builders in the city wonderful of our dreams.



The women, boys and children of the chorus grouped about the high priest and his attendants.

Slav Emigration at Its Source

Emily Greene Balch

VI.—Emigration from Croatia

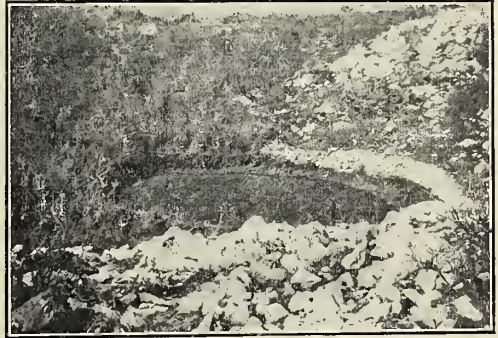
This is the sixth of a series of articles giving some of the results of Miss Balch's studies in Austria-Hungary. Previous installments appeared in the issues of January 6, February 3, March 3, April 7 and May 5.

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"The Croatians look as if they were dying of consumption but they are tougher than wire." This is what a doctor of the immigration service said to me out of years of experience and it is borne out by much that I have seen and heard since.

The Lika district of Croatia was one of the few places where I seemed to see a distinguishable type. I think of these men as tall and worn looking, with thin serious faces and curious horizontal wrinkles, which may mean care and may mean sun dazzle, across their foreheads. At any rate the man's lined face, together with the mutton chop whiskers that he wears, give him as he ploughs his stony field a strange irrelevant likeness to a British business man.

The Croatian has needed to be tough. At least in the western districts, from which most of the emigrants come, he has had a hard struggle against both nature and man. The counties to the east, which constitute Slavonia, are rich and under-populated, but toward the west there are often more people than



A sink hole, "dolina", in the Karst; the only soil that can be found.

the country under present conditions is fitted to support. Along the Adriatic coast and for some distance inland, including Lika—Krbava county, it is rugged where not actually mountainous and largely sterile. Much of it is indeed sheer Karst or limestone desert, about as pleasant to try to cultivate as a piece of bare coral. To understand what it means one must drive, as we did, day after day through this country. Even a New Englander, used to fields where "the sheep's noses have to be sharpened so that they can graze between the stones," is appalled at what is here called pasture. Great stretches lie almost bare of any green thing, a mere exposure of broken rock surfaces.

In many places there are depressions in the stony ground into which soil washes, and one sees such spots, perhaps fifteen feet across, walled around and carefully cultivated. These *dolinas*, as they are called, are characteristic of this limestone region (I counted I think forty on one scrubby hillside) which is also rich in grottos, rivers that sink into the



A specimen of Karst. All that shows white is limestone.

earth or suddenly flow forth from a cavern and other picturesque natural features.

In the mountainous parts the winters are long and severe and the famous Bora, the dreaded north wind of the eastern Adriatic shore, is very destructive. We drove through an attractive valley where a peasant who had been we were told in Missouri, in Wyoming and in Pueblo, Colorado, was doing his spring ploughing. The soil is good enough but the climate too rigorous for much to grow. "It is a whole fur coat colder here," our driver said. Another day he mentioned, as if it were nothing very extraordinary, being once snowed up for twenty days at the inn where we were lunching.

But if the winters are cold the summer sun of Italy blazing on these whitish rocks can be hot enough.

As if the natural difficulties were not enough the Croatian, especially the Croatian of the southern border has had to face a constant struggle with the Turk. Till 1878 the neighboring territory, Bosnia, was still Turkish and men still living remember the bloody fighting on the Cordon. One gets a vivid suggestion of what it meant by a Croatian valley cultivated from side to side but without a house among the fields. The dwellings are all at the edge of the slopes. "Is the valley subject to floods?" I asked, wondering. "Oh, no, but it was necessary to be able to take refuge quickly in the woods and mountains in case of a raid."

Here and there one sees on a hill a castle or fortress built for refugees (Uskoks) and one hears of this or that district having inhabitants who are distinguishable by their dialect as descendants of unfortunates who formerly fled thither to escape the Turks. Evans in his most interesting book on Bosnia has a photograph of a group of such who had taken refuge in Raqusa on the Dalmatian coast. This was in the seventies; I forget the year.

To protect the frontier the strip of land along the borders was organized as early as 1564, into the so-called military frontier or military confines. This was reorganized in 1807 and in

1850 and then constituted a separate Austrian crownland.

The population of this frontier was placed on a purely military footing and divided into regiments under military command. Every man of military age, that is up to sixty, was a soldier. Though living like peasants they were in the emperor's service with a regular position in the army, subject to active duty for a part of every year and liable to be called to the colors at any time. Indeed these Croatian regiments, the Likaner and others, were not only made use of in local warfare but were apt to be sent to the front in the distant wars in which the Austrians have been constantly engaged. Their bravery was renowned.

Indeed the man of the frontier up to forty or fifty years ago could not go to his work without his weapons and was more used to fighting than to labor. As is usual under such circumstances work was then largely left to the women as it is in Montenegro to-day where war and hunting still rank, in true barbarian fashion, as the suitable occupations for a man. Some informants were of the opinion that many Croats have never acquired habits of steady industry, using their great strength energetically for a few days perhaps and then idling.

Not only was work thus interfered with by this military life but the natural responsibility for self support was partly lifted off the shoulders of this population. As soldiers they were necessary and must be maintained, and their support was eked out with imperial rations and with help in bad seasons.

It was not till 1869 that it was decided to do away with the military frontier, gradually abolishing the exceptional conditions and restoring the inhabitants to civil life. To these peculiar conditions were added those of another more widely spread institution, the Zadruga or communal family of the South Slavs, somewhat similar to the patriarchal families of Russia.

This is not the place to discuss this very interesting matter at length. The gist of it is a custom of owning and carrying on a farm and household not individually but as a family asso-

**The People of
a Military
Frontier.**

**The Zadruga
or Communal
Household.**

ciation. The administration is in the hands of the elected head, generally the father or eldest man but not necessarily so. The choice depends on character, ability and circumstances. A woman, usually but not always the wife of the head man, is chosen to superintend and direct the women's work—sometimes a woman is the head of the whole Zadruga.

We were in one such household not far from Agram where sixty persons were living in communism. In the main homestead the living rooms opened off a gallery, raised a story from the ground. One room was set apart for unmarried girls; in the main room was a row of big beds along each side and at one end stood the table at which all the men eat together. The women eat afterwards. In the yard was a well and about it a variety of farm buildings and also small



Courtyard of a Zadruga where sixty persons are living as one family with property in common. Some of the sons are in America.

houses where some of the young married couples live. They eat however with the others.

This is quite a wealthy Zadruga with money in the bank and the old man at its head is likewise the head official of the village. We were told, if I remember rightly that "two of the sons are in America and one in Spittsburg" (*sc.* Pittsburg). The old man seemed to be seized with a sense of yearning for he twice smoothed his worn hands down my cheeks and said "Greet Janko for me if you see him in America."

In Agram I had a very interesting talk with a gentleman, a man of cosmopolitan reputation in Slavic countries

as a writer and politician, who was brought up in a Zadruga till the age of ten—a Zadruga, as it happened, administered by a woman. He is a great admirer of the institution. It has, I judge, the good and bad features of communal or semi-communal life in general. There is a lessened appeal to energy and initiative, the lazy man is better off than (in an economic sense at least) he deserves to be and it is easy to play a rather passive role. On the other hand there is great economy of time, labor and capital. One or two women are toled off by the elected house mother to do the cooking and household tasks, the others are delegated for field work, herding, and so forth, according to the circumstances, and similarly with the men. There are no law suits, no expensive settlements, no inheriting and the burden of taxation is lighter. It makes possible a varied and highly social household life and is moreover a training in cooperation, tolerance and more than one beautiful moral quality.

The institution itself seems to have made progressive concessions to individualism, but not enough to save it. Since 1848 in Croatia—Slavonia outside the military frontier, and a generation later within that territory also, legislation was altered to permit the division of Zadrugas which was not before allowed. The old associations began rapidly to dissolve, statesmen after a time took alarm at the resulting cutting up of land and a law was passed more favorable to the old communal groups and prohibiting division where the portions would be smaller than a certain minimum, fixed at from three to eight yokes in different districts.¹

When a Zadruga is divided whether by legal process or secretly by mutual consent to avoid legal expenses and increase of taxation, even a well to do group too often makes a number of poor and really insolvent families. Not only

¹In spite of the process of dissolution of these communities which in some districts has swept them away completely, it was shown by an inquiry in 1890 that nearly a fifth of the population was then living in such communal families. Most of these however are small—8 % have ten or less members—and differ from ordinary families not in size but in the fact that they hold their property like a corporation; no member can claim a share nor dispose of his rights to another.

is the land cut up, often into small inadequate lots, the cattle and necessities of all kinds are divided and sometimes the old communal dwelling is torn down and divided *beam by beam*. There are not ploughs enough to fit out all the separate undertakings, each one lacks sufficient capital and must resort to loans. Moreover the individual members lack experience and perhaps capacity as well as capital for conducting an independent undertaking.

**Centuries
Crowded
Into One
Generation.**

As regards causes of emigration, Croatia shares with countries like upper Hungary or Galicia the impulse resulting from the abolition of feudal serfdom in 1848 and the invasion of the old self sufficing peasant economy by modern wares and ways. But here we have not only the unstable equilibrium of an economy where modern desires are awaking but there is as yet lack of capital, lack of manufactures, lack of railroads and lack of modern agricultural methods and in some districts actual lack of sufficient usable soil. Beside all this Croatia suffers from a forced transition, hurrying the evolution of centuries into a generation, a transition from the subjection and partial support of the frontier soldiers and from the sheltered mutual dependence of the communal family to the full responsibility of self maintenance on an individual footing in a novel competitive world.

Croatian emigration to America be-

gan first among the always mobile seafaring population of Dalmatia and sea-board Croatia and the islands which stud the Adriatic coast. This population, cut off by the great limestone range of the Velebit which runs just back of the shore line, has a character and situation all its own, and though chronologically it should be considered first, it will, for reasons of convenience, be taken up later and the present article devoted to the main body of the Croats those of the inland part of the kingdom of Croatia-Slavonia.

With the Croats we enter the world of the South Slavs which is cut off from the Slavs of the north by a band of peoples non-Slavic in speech and at least mainly non-Slavic in blood. To the west are the Germans, and to the east the Magyars and the Roumanians running through to the Black sea and separating the Bohemians, Slovaks, Poles, Little Russians and Russians to the north from the Slovenes, Croats, Servians and Bulgarians to the south.

These south Slavs, or as they are also called Jungo-Slavs, consist really of one central group, lying between the Slovenes in the west and the Bulgarians in the east. This central group has as someone has put it a double nucleus. Some of its members are Serfs or Servians, some are Croats or Croats. The scientific writer generally calls them Servo-Croats or by some such double name, for the fact is that in language and in race they are one, the differences



are political and religious. The Croatean is Roman-Catholic; he uses the Latin letters as we do; his affiliations are with the west. The Servian, on the contrary, has been drawn historically into the world of eastern Christianity; he is Greek orthodox in belief and like the Russians uses the Cyrillic alphabet. This Servo-Croatian nationality extends over a wide area and across numerous political boundaries. In Austria they occupy the strip of shore and islands which constitute Dalmatia, and north of this, in the peninsula of Istria which hangs like a bunch of grapes between the Austrian port of Trieste and the Hungarian port of Fiume, they make up nearly one-half of the population. They also inhabit the occupied provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the romantic little independent principality of Montenegro. But their chief seats are the "autonomous kingdom" Croatia-Slavonia, which is part of Hungary in the wider sense, and the independent kingdom of Servia.

Thus the words Croatian and Servian are ambiguous, having sometimes a geographical sense, sometimes a racial or even political sense. A man from the coast may tell you he is a Croatian or he may tell you he is a Dalmatian. A New York plumber told me quite sensibly that he was a Servian from Montenegro.

In spite of unity of race and language there has been such a difference in the historical development and the conditions of life in different parts of the territory inhabited by Croatians that it seems necessary to take different groups up separately and as has been said it is convenient to begin with the Croatians of Croatia and of inland Croatia at that.

The Inland Emigration.

As has already been mentioned emigration began very early along the coast. Thence it spread inland. Previous to the building of the railroad from Karlstadt to Fiume in 1873 everything, freight and passengers, came over the mountains on wheels or on pack animals and this gave occupation to a large part of the mountain population. An 18th century traveler says that this traffic then brought sixteen or twenty thousand dollars into circulation and he tells of women carry-

ing heavy burdens on their shoulders for a four or five hours climb up the mountains spinning as they went. When in 1873 this source of earning was cut off the people had to look elsewhere for their lands could not support them. In some districts this had always been the case and surplus hands had sought a living in seasonal employment abroad or in peddling. In the early eighties a few people from the northern part of Modrus-Fiume country began to go to the United States.

Here as in all the districts of Croatia where there are forests, the men are famous woodsmen. They are masters of the axe and a good worker can hew accurately to a line for sixty feet. Accordingly in the United States they often are woodworkers, stave cutters along the Mississippi or lumbermen in Michigan. An interesting man whom we ran across was a master carpenter who had perfected himself by the old *wanderjahr* plan, going as he told us to Germany, Paris, and elsewhere to learn new ways and bring home new ideas. Now this is not necessary as there is a good trades school in Agram.

Croatians are said to be clever workmen in general, quick to catch an idea and carry it out. They have a proverb "what he sees, he makes." I have not happened to learn in America whether they have this reputation here where they come into comparison with other nationalities.

Glimpses of Village Life.

We were in a village of this district, which I will call "Lipa" whence people had been emigrating to America since 1885. We were told that of a population of 3,400, 1,800 were in America. There is a "New Lipa" in Michigan which was colonized from this village. I photographed a house from which I was told thirty persons had gone and in one little inn the rooms were adorned with pictures of relatives in American finery.

A very interesting experience which we enjoyed in this village was a chance to see a troupe of wandering actors. The play was a grandiose historical tragedy and it was given on an im-



A study in giggles. School children in "Lipa."

promptu stage, lighted by two ordinary oil lamps, and so small that the dying hero's head lay in the doorway of one of the side exits and his feet stuck out between the lamps. The language was Croatian and we could not understand it at all.

Over all these obstacles the art of the chief actor triumphed. I think I have hardly been stirred in the same way except by Booth. Duse and Coquelin I have seen in rôles of such a different quality that I cannot make comparisons. Salvini, too, moved in a different world. But think of it! That these are the names that should occur to me in trying to measure the genius of a strolling player in a Croatian village. I am hoping that some good fate may give me another chance to hear Kostic!

This village boasted, too, among its teachers a lady who is said to write very pretty Croatian verse and who has given me some prose notes on emigration as

she sees it, part of which I hope to print in some later number of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS.

Another very pleasant feature of the village was a reading club with an inviting room where the papers subscribed for in common could be read. Such clubs are wide spread, indeed I was told elsewhere that "in every village is a library bought by peasants alone, and in winter they often come together to have some one read to them, not only newspapers but more solid literature such as translations of Tolstoy, Turgueneff, and Dostoyevsky." Such glimpses suggest what a different thing illiteracy is under different circumstances.

Some Economic Factors.

A local cause of emigration which affected the wine growing districts, especially those about Jaska and Karlstadt, was the phylloxera which apparently was brought into the neighborhood

of Agram in 1872, by a gentleman who imported some American vines from France. It also got into the Varasdin district and spread from there. It appeared, too, in Syrmium, coming from across the Danube in Hungary, where it had broken out as early as 1870 or 1871. In consequence of this, emigration began early in the district, about Karlstadt and Jaska. It is said to have started in 1884 and 1885, but greatly increased later, especially in 1900 and 1901. Money has been sent back from America to replant the vineyards with American stocks which are immune to phylloxera and on which European varieties are afterward grafted. This is an expensive operation but is the only way.

About the middle of the nineties the emigration began from Lika Krbava. The first probably went, I was told, as a result of reading about America in the papers. This region not only was formerly the scene of bloody conflicts as the name denotes, but is largely sterile, stony and subject to harsh climatic conditions as already described. With a population of two hundred and nine thousand, it has only one hundred and fifty-nine thousand yokes of arable land,¹ which is less than three-quarters of a yoke apiece and a yoke is reckoned necessary to feed one person. This is actual over-population for manufacturers are practically nil and as may be seen on the map there is no railroad in a region nearly twice as big as Rhode Island.

Of course if culture were intensive it would be a different situation, but the methods are primitive; the plough may be of wood and the sower, scattering unselected seed, plants weeds with the grain.

The oxen and horses are generally small and run out. A stock joke is that of a German tourist who wrote "The Croats have small horse-like crea-

tures called *Konje*." ¹ We saw women ploughing with oxen that came only to their waists. The sheep are said to degenerate, the wool soon becoming poor and harsh in quality.

The government, however, has agricultural stations for experiment, breeding and teaching of methods and is making efforts to improve the stock both of animals and plants.

The public schools, moreover, often have gardens where the children are taught the care of fruit trees and how to graft them.

A great blow that the population has sustained is the government prohibition of keeping goats. They formerly did much damage to woods and in this limestone region, which so easily becomes denuded, this is a very serious matter. It might have been regulated, however, without cutting off altogether what had been a very important part of the living of the peasant. We were told that the military authorities notice a falling off in physique, ascribed to the lack of the wholesome and strengthening goat's milk formerly available.

At Gospic, the county town of this region, we sat in a meadow fragrant with what is to me the most delicious smell in the world, that of bruised thyme, and looked across the green grass to a stretch of Karst beyond, so white that it dazzled the eyes almost like a snow field, and to the romantic ruins of a Turkish castle; while to the west rose the inexpressibly beautiful snowy peaks of the Velebit where rests the hero, Marko, the king's son, not dead, but sleeping and destined to return and free the land when its hour of direct need shall come. That the story, the subject of some of the most famous of the famous Servian folk poetry, is still alive was shown by the rude picture of Marko on his steed which we saw drawn on the wall of a peasant house.

In Gospic, too, we walked through oak woods, purple with a carpet of spring crocus and lit with the sunset, and through roads along which peasants returning from the long market day and

¹Lika Krbava County:

Arable land (in yokes)	159,000
Meadow	89,000
Pasture	282, 00
Woods	464,000
Karet	81,000

1,075,000

¹I quote the word from memory, it is simply the Croatian word for horses.

its following carousals were driving home in tipsy excitement. Though we were two women without escort we felt no fear and apparently had no cause to. In this once wild frontier no case of highway robbery is remembered in forty-five years and we were asked with incredulity if it could be true, as emigrants reported in America, that they were in danger of being assaulted if they walked home alone with their pay along the lonely stretches of railroad where they worked—that they must go in groups of ten or twelve and carry revolvers. We explained that this could be true, if at all, only in wild and out of the way places. I did not know that Chicago in April, 1906, would report, I have forgotten how many cases of death by violence nor had I then found myself in the South forbidden to walk anywhere alone on quiet country roads.¹

In Lika Krbava county a very interesting inquiry had just been made as to the effects of emigration. The population is 209,000. In 1902, 5,619 went to America and 436 returned. It must be remembered that this represents an early phase of the movement and few would return so soon. In 1903 it was estimated that 8,000 were in America. In that year 2,795 borrowed money with which to go and 4,317 sent money home, amounting so far as known to about \$560,860, or not quite \$130 from each sender on an average. With this money 4,116 homes were bettered—by paying debts, buying more land or making im-

provements. Homes were reported impoverished in seven cases and ruined (abandoned?) in twenty-seven.

One result of emigration is the excessive rise in land values. The soil is poor and stony, but there is no other channel for investment and the man who has got a little money must and will buy land. So competition together with speculation has run prices up so that where arable land formerly cost \$60 to \$80 a yoke it now costs up to \$400 and meadow land is dearer still.

Of late emigration has been extending north into the Varasdin district which till recently remained almost unaffected. It is a poor region and the most densely populated part of the country, with 209 inhabitants to the square kilometer or agricultural land where Lika Krbava has 135. Emigrants do not go from the poorest parts of this district however.

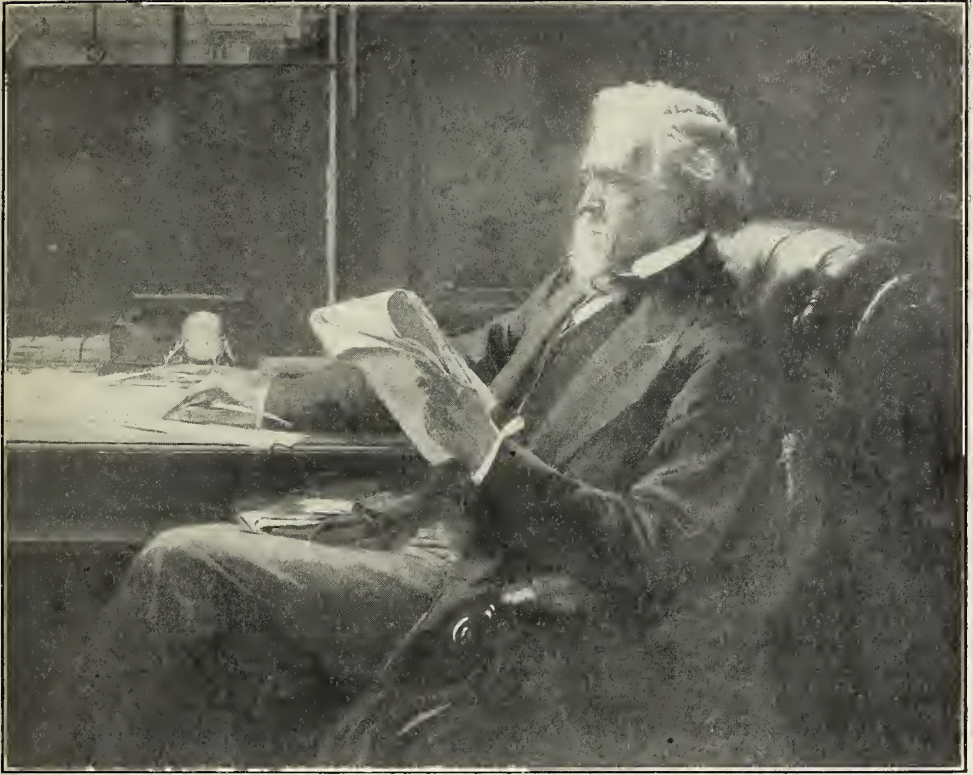
Another new field for emigration is the eastern counties; that is Slavonia. Here conditions are just the contrary; the land is rich and thinly populated with (in Symium) only eighty-seven to the square kilometer of agricultural land. There have been attempts to colonize this district from Hungary and from the Varasdin district in Croatia but for some reason population does not seem to flow thither as might be expected.

We did not succeed in making time for a visit to this interesting part of the county but much as I regret it this is perhaps no serious loss as far as the study of emigration goes.

¹For the sake of fairness I will add that I have been told in Pennsylvania of a murder of a paymaster by two Croatians.



Thirty persons from this house are in America. The picture was taken on the ninth of April, after a Bora and snowfall. The black flag at the window of the priest's house in the background was on account of Bishop Strossmayer's death the day before.



G. J. Holyoake

George Jacob Holyoake

N. O. Nelson

Leclaire (Edwardsville), Ill.

On the 22d of January there passed away at his home in Brighton, England, a man who for seventy years had been a familiar figure as agitator, journalist, author and platform speaker.

In April Holyoake would have been 89, but there had been no sign of decline in his mental vigor. As late as last summer he finished two large volumes, while his articles on a wide range of subjects appeared in many periodicals and newspapers. To me, and I think to many others, Holyoake will never seem dead. He did so much that lives on; his vivacious, even playful style in books and letters will speak in the coming years as freshly as in the past.

Holyoake's great work was the co-operative movement. To it he had been propagandist, mentor and historian; he gloried in its wonderful development; he had unbounded faith that through it the golden rule would become a social law.

John Malcolm Ludlow, of 36 Upper Addison Gardens, Kensington, London, is, I believe, now the only survivor of the old guard of co-operative leaders. But Ludlow retired from active work a dozen years ago, and Holyoake had been since the death of Neale and Hughes the sole active survivor of this masterly and devoted coterie of reformers. All of them came into the movement soon after the Rochdale pioneers opened the little Toad

Lane store in 1884. All but Holyoake were Christian Socialists; he was neither Christian nor Socialist. Frederick Denison Maurice and Charles Kingsley were clergymen and authors; Edward Van Sittart Neale, Thomas Hughes (Tom Brown of Rugby), and John M. Ludlow, were barristers; all were university men and belonged to the upper class. Holyoake was a Birmingham knife grinder who had obtained a fair education at the Mechanics' Institute night school. He had taken to the platform in opposition to ecclesiastical authority and had served a six months' prison sentence for blasphemy. Every inch an agitator, he was by no means choice either in language, methods or associations. He called wrongs by their plain Anglo-Saxon names, and he opposed them by whatever means promised results. His autobiography, published ten years ago, tells of many a lurid episode in the early days. Like Mazzini, he started with confidence in physical force and resistance; like Mazzini, he graduated into an implicit faith in association.

It is not supposable that the refined Christian Socialist churchmen received without misgivings this ardent iconoclast, but his familiarity with the working class, his eloquent appeals in print and on the platform, his readiness for every duty and his resourcefulness in emergencies, made him an ally they learned to respect and rely on.

Holyoake's Creed. Freedom and justice were the two words that made the whole of Holyoake's creed. Repeal, not enactment, was his constant political attitude. Leave men free and unhampered, neither granting privilege to some nor imposing disabilities on others. He fought the stamp tax on newspapers; he fought all church tests; he fought for free trade, and freedom of association. Justice to all men, he insisted, could best be secured through voluntary associations—industrial, social and other. "Recognition of the worker" was the slogan ever on his lips in the later days. By this he meant that the worker should not be a mere hireling for wages; he should have a share in the surplus or profit in factory and store, and a voice in the man-

agement. He protested strenuously against the prevalent practice of the co-operative stores and factories in reserving all the profit for the consumer;—the Rochdale founders, the patriot fathers, designed the store as a profit maker to create capital for self-employment, but the dividend-hunting consumer had betrayed the worker, and again sold him into wage slavery.

He admitted fully enough the great service of the co-operative store, the honest goods and prices of the co-operative factories, yet he laid so great stress on "bonus to labor" that his warmest admiration was given to the labor copartnerships and the private profit-sharing concerns.

Holyoake would undoubtedly have agreed with Jefferson that the best government is the one which governs the least, yet he gave relatively so much greater weight to self-help through association, that his only interest in political reforms was to secure freedom. What government did or failed to do would affect the working man little, if only he could and would freely associate in doing his work and making a living, and becoming intelligent, independent and just. He was first and foremost practical. He twitted the builders of utopian air castles. He was as skeptical as Carlyle about parliament-made virtue, and though he had confidence in the people, it was in their industrial rather than their political sense and honesty.

No man could be more fearless than he. When they haled him to court for blasphemy, he defended his cause rather than himself, in a nine-hour speech. He printed his newspaper on unstamped paper, and went to prison for it when he could no longer elude the officers of the law. In the Co-operative Congress of 1904, in opposition to certain political resolutions and because he would have no politics in the movement, he spoke and voted alone.

Boldness was a characteristic of his thought and his action. He was outspoken and sometimes severe, but without rancour or ill will. If he had not charity for quite all, he had no malice for any.

His personal attachments were many and strong. Not only those who were associates in his work, but those opposed to him, and men in other walks were his close friends; he had affection for them. He was on close terms with Mill, Spencer, Gladstone, Earl Grey, Lord Ripon, bishops and curates, Anglicans and dissenters.

His Writings. How industrious and prolific a writer he was can be judged by the fact that he wrote on many subjects for many periodicals and papers throughout the Victorian Age and up to his death. At the same time, he was the acknowledged historian of the co-operative movement. He wrote a large two-volume history of the movement and a small volume, a history of the Rochdale Pioneers and of the Leeds Industrial Society. He wrote two volumes of *Speaking and Debate*, and rewrote it twenty years later. Ten years ago came two volumes of *Sixty Years of an Agitator's Life*, and last summer the two volumes of *Bygones Worth Remembering*.

All of his writing had the same light touch, a wonderful fund of reminiscence and anecdote, and a large seasoning of quiet humor and keen wit. Either he possessed a phenomenal memory, or he had been an industrious recorder. His books are full of reference to persons he had known as friend or foe. Of them all I recall none but Disraeli that called for vitriol and contempt. Between him, the free thinker, and Gladstone the churchman there was a warm attachment and mutual respect. With the tangents of Ruskin and Carlyle and Morris, he could have had little sympathy, and I think he never sought their acquaintance. He had ideals, high and strong, but they were ideals to be dealt with now, in realizable terms. His was the imagination of an inventor and promoter and leader of humanly practicable and useful plans.

Old friends, opponents or allies, died off; but with him new and young friends filled their places. Never a plaint escaped him; never an intimation of loneliness; never a sign of age in mind or heart.

Holyoake
and Hale.

Holyoake and Edward Everett Hale have always seemed like running mates, particularly in this quality of perennial youth. Of nearly the same age, always immersed in affairs, good mixers, prolific writers, with serious purpose but humorous vein. Both came first to my notice as writers on co-operative subjects. *Back to Back* and *How They Lived at Hampton* were Hale's outlines for partnership between labor, ability and capital. They were more than sermons or utopian speculations; they formulated working plans. The stories were stories of success. The business details were furnished by a prosperous New England manufacturer, who however did not share Hale's faith. Hale gave a helping hand also to the co-operative movement, as he has done to almost every social betterment movement in this country for more than half a century. In England Holyoake worked along the same lines in much the same way, but with better material and with the encouragement of ever-increasing success. Like Hale, his body grew frail, but his disposition was youthful, his spirits buoyant, and his industry unabated.

Though at farthest extremes in vocation, in family traditions and in local environment, these two were fast friends, and essentially similar. Holyoake Road and Hale Avenue are the parallel principal streets in the town of Leclaire, Ill.

Both men were my earliest co-operative inspirers—twenty years ago—and both have been hearty friends and encouragers at all times and in all ways. When I was planning Leclaire, Hale travelled New England with me to take village notes. He once lectured to us in one of our factories, for the lecture hall would not hold his big audience.¹

Holyoake's portraits, sent and inscribed by himself, hang in Leclaire Hall and in my home library. Most of his books in my library also bear his bold autograph, and there are many breezy letters in my files, for his industry matched his affection.

¹ In 1893 I offered to pay Holyoake's expenses if he would come to the Worlds' Fair and Leclaire and the United States, a very proper outlay for so valuable a public object and private pleasure, but an infirm body and discreet family members vetoed the project.

**Social Alliance
in the
Victorian Age.** Holyoake came into public life with the crowning of Victoria. He saw the adoption of every reform that was actively demanded in that period of woe and ferment. Much good came of it all, and yet pauperism and unemployment and degradation in imperial Great Britain are the despair of statesmen and students and social workers. Were Holyoake to step into the lists again to-day as he did in 1836, full 70 years ago, he would likely find as much for his knightly voice and temper to assail.

A new radicalism would possess him; to free the land might seem as necessary now as to free men was then; to socialize the use of existing capital as expedient now as to create capital by associated trade seemed then. Invasion of the field of private enterprise was a charge laid at the door of co-operation. The same charge has been persistently made against municipal ownership of public utilities (municipal trading, the British call it). The charges are true, but the invasion is legitimate and necessary. In certain grave respects private enterprise is a public enemy. The larger portion of "trade" is a public function. Common carriers have come to be recognized as quasi-public; corporations are quasi-public. The quasi is always a halting expedient, to gloss over transitional anomaly.

But Holyoake dwelt to the end in the faith of his youth. An almost complete manhood suffrage gave the Briton his freedom; free trade gave him a fair field and fair fight; the right of association on terms of his own making put self-employment within the reach of every man who would do so much as pay two shillings into a co-operative store and let his trade dividends accumulate. Until a man would do this much on his own initiative he was not qualified for industrial self-rule, however much he might be a fit political ruler.

His latter-day loyalty to the program of his youth cannot be much wondered at in the light of the astonishing prosperity of the program, whatever one may think of the disparity between its ideals and present existing results.

We cannot doubt that Robert Owen, who was Holyoake's mentor—the accredited father of co-operation—would take little consolation from the present condition of the worker in London and Liverpool and Glasgow. The Tractarians and Chartists and Christian Socialists of the forties, Holyoake's associate workers, would stand aghast at the supremacy of commercial materialism, of vastly increased navy and public debts and taxation. The pioneer Rochdale co-operators would wonder that their brotherhood ideals should have deteriorated rather than improved; submerged, as Holyoake so often warned, by the greed for dividends.

**The
Co-Operative
Movement.**

Yet as human history goes, Holyoake's life work bore results far beyond most public efforts; his ideals fared far better than those of his contemporaries in state or church. Free speech, free press, almost free trade, were accomplished and they at least gave initiative an open field.

In sixty-one years, from 1844 to 1905, the co-operative movement in Great Britain had grown from 28 members, \$140 capital, and no trade, to over two million members, nearly 500 millions trade, 50 millions profits, and 50 millions of factory output. It is the most complete and economical business system the world has ever had, reaching in many things from the first hand producer to the final consumer without the intervention of any private profit-taker and utilizing every economic expedient that unlimited capital and thorough-going experience can provide.

Throughout the continent the system in its main features has been copied, and its growth in some of the countries is amazing—notably Denmark, Belgium and Switzerland.

A steady increase in England and Scotland of about eight per cent. a year in membership, capital, trade, manufacturing and profits could not fail to appeal to Holyoake's practical mind. He wrote no verse, but he had a poet's vision above and ahead, to see a final and distant absorption of the

whole field of production and trade. He may have had forebodings. He was deeply concerned that the worker was not recognized either in the management or the product—that only as he might also be consumer was he an interested party. He might have feared the ascendancy of Demos as a new profit-making master, not so greatly better than the autocrat of private capital. But I think this anxiety went no farther than that the mistake were better avoided than mended. He believed implicitly in the voluntary association co-operative ideal, as sufficient to make men industrially free and that nothing else would. He insisted upon the pre-eminence of work and the worker, and the subordinate position of consumption and consumer.

Because this movement goes on and on, comes more and more in the daylight of the big business world, this will be Holyoake's monument. As histories of the dramatic reform, aspects and personalities of the Victorian age, his *Sixty Years of an Agitator's Life* and his *Bygones Worth Remembering*, will be freely read and will live. But his name will be most fully perpetuated in his *History of the Co-operative Movement* and in the papers and speeches on that subject when collected in an adequate biography and in his collected works. It is to be hoped that some master hand will undertake a commensurate biography, such as Morley, McCarthy or Bryce might do if they were familiar and sympathetic with him and the subject.

The secret of Holyoake's many and warm personal friends in all classes, was no doubt his real love for people and his actual affection for those he liked. His thoughtfulness was a perpetual surprise, he overlooked no detail of attention, and he took notice of any generous recognition or praise bestowed on him. Much of the charm of his books is the naive personal incidents showing his

satisfaction in the approval of the public and the affection of friends.

He twice came to America, on one occasion to investigate the conditions and localities available for British immigrants. He was officially received at Washington, lectured in New York and Boston, went west as far as Santa Fe, New Mexico. The enterprise and ignorance of the reporters amused him much, but being himself a journalist familiar with interviewing as well as being interviewed, he adjusted himself graciously to the peculiarities of the Yankee method.

In the far west he found his former amanuensis, J. Charlton, at the head of the passenger department of the Chicago & Alton Railroad. Unlike Ruskin, who wrote that he would rather trust to the good will of the Hapsburgs than to the arrogance and stupidity of the American democracy, Holyoake regarded the political system of the United States as all that could be desired, and its statesmen and literary men and workmen he held in high esteem. Holyoake was as far as possible from the railing and bitter denunciation which formed the main part of Carlyle and Ruskin's writing about institutions and the "people." Holyoake's style was sweet, constructive, persuasive, cheerful; abundantly enlivened with illustrations and side lights. His theory and methods were evolutionary, though on several occasions in his early career he trenched on the revolutionary and unlawful, as a method of protest, an incidental aid to the end.

His manner was mild and gentle, his voice low, and, in late years somewhat broken; his thought was ready, and had a light and easy flow. In his conversation, as in his writings, apt reminiscences seemed to have no end.

The memory of him is so vivid, the work he did is so solid and active and growing, that he will seem always present to those who knew him, and to the world one of its immortals.

The Report of the Massachusetts Commission on Industrial and Technical Education

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Practically all of the commissions or individuals reporting upon the problem of industrial education, have heretofore contented themselves with an examination of existing industrial and technical schools and a statement of the extent and manner to which these have influenced the surrounding industrial situation. In striking contrast to this procedure is the report that has recently issued from the Massachusetts Commission on Industrial and Technical Education, appointed by Governor Douglas on June 7, 1905. The studies of this commission have extended far below the operation and results of the present meager provisions for industrial training, to the actual conditions under which children enter the industries, the demands of the industries upon them, the opportunities for development, and the relation of the school to the whole problem. The commission has indeed done much to fulfill the definition of its duties as laid down in the enacting resolution which states that it "shall investigate the needs for education in the different grades of skill and responsibilities in the various industries of the commonwealth. They shall investigate how far the needs are met by existing institutions and shall consider what new forms of educational effort may be advisable."

In pursuance of their investigations the commission held numerous public hearings in different parts of the state, which were attended by many classes of people and varieties of interest. As a result of these hearings the commission made a number of deductions.

1. There is a widespread interest in the general subject of industrial education, or special training for vocations. This is manifested both by students of social phenomena and of education, and by manufacturers and wage earners.

2. There is a practical and specific interest among manufacturers and wage earners because of a *personal need*. The commission was told at almost every hearing that in

many industries the processes of manufacture and construction are made more difficult and more expensive by a lack of skilled workmen. This lack is not chiefly a want of manual dexterity, though such a want is common, but a want of what may be called *industrial intelligence*. By this is meant mental power to see beyond the task which occupies the hands for the moment to the operations which have preceded and to those which will follow it,—power to take in the whole process, knowledge of materials, ideas of cost, ideas of organization, business sense, and a conscience which recognizes obligations.

3. The commission was made aware of a growing feeling of inadequacy of the existing public school system to meet fully the need of modern industrial and social conditions.

4. The commission was not able to learn that even the people who are most interested in industrial education have any definite ideas as to its proper scope or method.

5. The commission early became aware that its purpose and work encountered the suspicion and hostility of many of the labor unions of the state. It was suspected that the commission was created to formulate a plan for trade schools supported at public expense. The opposition to such schools is based on the fear that they would furnish workmen in numbers sufficiently large to affect the labor market, and bring about a lowering of wages.

6. To technical schools in distinction from trade schools the commission found little opposition.

7. To the question, "If technical education were to be furnished, by whom should the expense be borne?" the most common answer was, "Wholly or partly by the state."

The Genesis of the Present Situation.

As a necessary element in their study of the subject, the commission made a presentment of the Massachusetts system of education in the aspects which they felt most significantly related to the problem in hand. This analysis contains much that is of interest and weight. The relation between common schools and the apprenticeship system in the early days was complementary. The function of one was to promote intelligence as a basis of citizen-

ship, the function of the other to train for industrial vocations. These two systems of training formerly existed side by side in practical balance, not conflicting with each other and each sufficient for the needs of the times. The change in these relations as brought about by modern industrial conditions, resulting from the falling away of the apprenticeship system, and the expansion of the public schools is traced in the report and the point clearly made that the present condition of affairs has produced a thorough unbalancing of the two elements. The most serious deficiency of all in the present situation the commission finds is not the lack of manual skill, serious as this is, but the moral and intellectual deficiencies of the children going into the industries. "There is a one-sided sense of values, a one-sided view of life, and a wrong attitude toward labor. Not having any share in productive labor, and being out of touch with it, the youth have no standards by which to measure time or possessions or pleasures in terms of cost. Many persons believe that about this point center some of the gravest of present-day social problems."

The history of the introduction of drawing and manual training into the schools is described and the lack of industrial value in the latter subject is scored in vigorous terms. "It has been urged as a cultural subject mainly useful as a stimulus to other forms of intellectual effort,—a sort of mustard relish, an appetizer,—to be conducted without reference to any industrial end. It has been severed from real life as completely as have the other school activities." Words that friends as well as critics of manual training must recognize as absolutely just and accurate applied to much that is held as orthodox in practice; words, too, that hold an infinitude of suggestion for the vitalizing and advancement of this important work in the schools.

The present provisions for industrial and technical training in the commonwealth are noted, and the fact that practically all such provisions relate either to advanced training or evening continuation work, is made plain.

That there exists in the state practically no provision for the training of beginners for the trades and industries, except for girls in the case of the Boston Trade School, is the conclusion established by this portion of the report. The most original and valuable contribution of the report, as far as analysis of the situation is concerned, is contained in the report of the sub-committee on the relation of children to the industries by Miss Susan M. Kingsbury. The committee made a study of this subject under four heads.

First.—What the children of fourteen and fifteen are doing throughout the state.

Second.—What the educational and economic value of these years has been to the child at work.

Third.—What the educational and economic value of these years might be.

Fourth.—What the economic status of the parents of these children is, and how necessary is the income of the child.

Children in Massachusetts Industries.

In order to answer these questions they conducted their investigations in forty-three of the cities and towns of the state and followed 5,459 children into 3,157 homes and into 354 establishments, representing fifty-five industries. They sought to learn the school history of each child, the industrial history, the financial and social status of the family, the thrift, industry and ambition of the family, and especially the attitude of child and parent toward continued education, and the ability of the parent to afford such opportunities to the child. The committee found that 25,000 children between fourteen and sixteen years of age are at work or idle in Massachusetts. Out of these numbers only about one-sixth have graduated from the grammar school, one-half have not passed beyond the seventh grade, and one-fourth have had less than six years of schooling. A classification of industries into unskilled, low-grade skilled, and high-grade skilled is made use of. By unskilled industries is meant those in which the work is the repetition of a single or simple operation, easily learned in a short time, and in

which the knowledge of one part is not essential to that of another. In such industries the grade of ability and responsibility required is low and the wages correspondingly low. The low-grade skilled industries are those in which the work is rather that of running a machine than simply tending one, since the management requires a greater knowledge and greater skill or care. The difference often consists in the cleaner and more desirable conditions of work, in the greater care required in similar processes, and in the existence of a large number of skilled occupations in the industry into which the ambitious employee may force himself. Consequently, the grade of employee is higher; children under sixteen are being refused more and more. Employees constantly endeavor to pass from the mill of lower grade to that of the higher, and the wages for similar occupations are greater.

These low-grade skilled industries do not require a knowledge of all processes to be a first-class workman, nor do the operations require a great amount of skill, and they are usually learned in a few months at the most. Here lies the distinction between this grade of industry and the high-grade skilled industry. In the latter a high grade of skill is required in any one occupation, and must be acquired by some years of training or experience. Or an acquaintance by the employee with one occupation in the industry is often essential to the knowledge of another, while skill in all parts of the business must be had by a large number of employees.

The investigations show that the grades of industry entered by the child between fourteen and sixteen are of the lowest order.

Thirty-three per cent of the children of this state who begin work between fourteen and sixteen are employed in unskilled industries, and sixty-five per cent in low-grade industries; thus a little less than two per cent are in high-grade industries.

A special study was made of the conditions existing in the textile centers, North Adams, Lowell and New Bedford. The results of these indicate that five-sixths of the children in the cotton mills have not graduated from the grammar schools and a very large proportion have not completed the seventh grade, while practically none of the children have had high school training. All of these children are by no means from the poorest homes; in

fact, there are twice as many in what we have classed as good-grade families as there are in the second grade. Neither is the appreciation of education of a low grade. Forty per cent of these families have shown a decided interest in a school which would give their children wage-earning powers, and have declared they wanted their children to remain in school; and, what is more tragic, sixty-six per cent of them could have kept them there.

The report emphasizes the fact that it is dissatisfaction on the part of the child which takes him from school, and ignorance on the part of the parent which permits him to enter the mill. It is in the low-grade industries like the cotton mills that the largest immediate return is open to the fourteen year old children, but it is precisely in these industries that the chance for advancement is least and where the maximum wage is most quickly reached.

The better occupation either will not receive the young child at all, or wants him with more schooling, or offers such a low initial wage that both child and parent turn to the mill, with its greater present wage opportunities.

The "Wasted Years."

A fact noted again and again in the report is that the boy who has remained in school until sixteen years old, not only has better chances of being admitted into a higher grade industry, but when entering a low-grade industry very quickly overtakes the boy who has entered two years earlier at fourteen. It is from these facts, brought out at so many phases of the inquiry,

that neither power nor advantage is gained by entering the industry at an early age; that the child who does enter closes behind him the door to progress to a fair living wage; that that child associates himself with our most undesirable population; that the work performed by the children is passing gradually to poorer and poorer classes of foreigners; that industrial education or education of any kind will mean that the children will not enter the industry,

that lead to the definition of the years between fourteen and sixteen as the "wasted years" to the boy who enters industries.

From the employers' side a growing reluctance was found, even in the cotton mills, to admit children under sixteen, and in a large number of cases

the employer declared strongly for the advantage of more education for the child, and in a lesser number of cases for general industrial training. In the woolen mills where the conditions of work are cleaner and better, very few firms express themselves as wanting children under sixteen.

The conditions in four commercial centers of the state were studied and 2,794 children looked up. In these centers the perplexing problem of juvenile employments with their evil influences upon character and lack of a "way out" is analyzed. In the case of the department stores 36 per cent of the children employed are graduates of a grammar school. The ability of the family to provide further training is set down as eighty-five per cent while about 50 per cent expressed a desire to have their children learn a skilled trade. The situation here is worse than in the mills; a certain small immediate return but no opportunity for advancement.

Two shoe centers (Brockton and Lynn) and one jewelry center (Attleborough) were investigated. In these places children under sixteen are not admitted in large numbers to the important factories. The grade of families in these towns is high, the labor is stable, but the percentage of grammar school graduates is low, from 28 per cent to 32 per cent. The percentage of those families which could and would patronize industrial schools is very large. Indeed the attitude for industrial education in these towns is stated to be almost a demand for it.

The case of boys entering skilled industries was a matter of special study. It is stated that practically all employers in such industries declare they do not want the boy before he is sixteen, but it is to be noted that quite a large number are reported below that age. Even in skilled industries such as machinery, printing and publishing, ship building, glass and silver-ware manufacture, grammar graduates figure in but small proportion, less than a third, and high school representatives less than one-twelfth.

Few figures are given to indicate the exact proportion of firms in these industries taking apprentices, but it is stated

that many industries and many firms do not take apprentices at all. It is also noted that many boys enter these industries as helpers, learn one process and there remain. These observations are vastly more significant than the statement that thirty-two out of eighty-five of the firms visited take apprentices, inasmuch as by far the greater proportion of boys going into industrial establishments, even where some apprentices are taken, enter as helpers, and as far as instruction goes learn but one thing.

It is rather a pity that room could not be found in the report for more than passing reference to the apprenticeship school maintained by the General Electric Company at Lynn, inasmuch as this plan represents probably the only example in the state where an earnest, intelligent and highly successful attempt has been made to adapt the apprenticeship system to both the limitations and requirements of modern industrial conditions.

A comparison is attempted between the wage value of boys trained in the shop and in so-called technical schools, but the value of this comparison is rather vitiated by the fact that a very small percentage of the graduates of the very few schools that deserve the title of technical school, become workmen in mechanical trades, and furthermore that still fewer remain as workmen for any considerable time. The technical school does not deal with the material that is to become the journeyman and does not train primarily for such positions. It is for these reasons not the type of school to compare with the training gained in practical work.

In summarizing the results of its studies the sub-committee points to certain main elements of the situation, among which is the fact that there is a very close relation between the age at which children are admitted to the industries in any place, and the length of time they remain in school; that the class or family has little to do with the child dropping out of school, but that in the great majority of cases he leaves school from choice and not from necessity; that choice of vocation for which the child is best fitted is impossible for

those entering the work below sixteen; that such industrial employments lead to nothing; that opportunities in skilled industries under present conditions are limited to a few.

The attitude of parents and ability of families to maintain children in school beyond fourteen is also summed up and the committee reports that fifty-five per cent of the families visited expressed themselves in favor of industrial school training and from the study of their financial status the deduction is made that seventy-six per cent of the families are capable of giving their children industrial training if persuaded of the advantage.

Three significant tendencies in the employer's attitude are noted,—first, the growing feeling that the employment of children is a great disadvantage; second, the growing tendency to demand experienced help and to refuse all apprentices and younger help; third, resulting from these, a growing approval of the idea of teaching the principles of the trades.

Finally, the inadequacy of present schools to perform this service is noted. With barely fifty-two (it should apparently be sixty-four) out of 2,437 manual training students on record in the mechanical trades, it is clear that the manual training high school is not meeting this need.

Trade, Technical and Manual Training High Schools.

The technical high schools it is claimed do not train workmen but officers of the industrial army. This reference would have much more meaning and weight if the institutions referred to as technical high schools were defined and differentiated from the manual training high schools. In one place the California School of Mechanic Arts is referred to as a technical school and in another as a trade school, while the Boston Mechanic Arts High School, the St. Louis Manual Training High School, The Baltimore Polytechnic, and the Brookline Manual Training School, all examples of the regulation manual training school, are referred to as technical schools.

While there is an unquestionable conviction developing in many minds that the logical destiny of the manual training high school is to become a technical

school, and while this tendency is taking form in practice in a few places, notably in the Springfield school, it is not at all true that the manual training schools noted above merit this title.

The short course trade schools are referred to, but not in a very illuminating manner, inasmuch as these schools as classified in another part of the report, represent two very diverse types; the trade schools for young men, like the New York Trade School, taking students between 17 and 25, and the trade schools for girls, represented by the Manhattan and Boston Trade Schools, admitting students at 14, whereas, the comments relate only to the latter type and give but scant recognition to the very positive merits of these schools.

The positive deductions as to the desirable type of school made by the subcommittee, are not as full or detailed in their specifications as might be wished, but are fairly definite notwithstanding.

The pronouncement is here as follows:

The development of policy in the industrial world and the experience of educators shows that the productive power of the child before fourteen is negative, and that it has not the power to handle anything but the simplest processes in the simplest and smallest way; that from fourteen to sixteen he is of productive power only for the large processes of manufacture, or for errand work; but that the child in those years, by teaching, may gain the principles of industrial work, which may be put into practice after sixteen; that, therefore, the training before fourteen should be in the simpler practical lines only; that between fourteen and sixteen it should combine the practical training in specific industries with academic work as applied to the industrial problems, to develop intelligence and responsibility.

In another place they say of such a school:

It must take the child at fourteen, and not wait for him to graduate; it must give him academic work more closely related to the specific industry; and it must not attempt to give him all of the academic work that is at present given in the regular high school, and shop work besides.

Such schools would indeed appear to be an important need of the situation and one absolutely unprovided for at present, except by the two above mentioned schools for girls. They would not be true trade schools, but by taking the boy at precisely the most impression-

able period mentally and physically, they could contribute enormously to his future industrial opportunity and efficiency. In such schools the hands would be so cultivated in manual skill and the mind enlarged in industrial intelligence that the boy could go forward in any line of industrial work with marked advantage. Such schools would greatly increase the economic desirability of a boy to any employer and would enhance his chances of entering a high-grade industry, as well as of a future advancement.

The conclusions of the commission issue in two lines of recommendations; the first of these relate to the public schools and are in part as follows:

That cities and towns so modify the work in the elementary schools as to include for boys and girls instruction and practice in the elements of productive industry, including agriculture and the mechanic and domestic arts, and that this instruction be of such a character as to secure from it the highest cultural as well as the highest industrial value; and that the work in the high schools be modified so that the instruction in mathematics, the sciences and drawing shall show the application and use of these subjects in industrial life, with especial reference to local industries, so that the students may see that these subjects are not designed primarily and solely for academic purposes, but that they may be utilized for the purposes of practical life. That is, algebra and geometry should be so taught in the public schools as to show their relations to construction; botany to horticulture and agriculture; chemistry to agriculture, manufactures and domestic sciences; and drawing to every form of industry.

The commission would also recommend that all towns and cities provide by new elective industrial courses in high schools, instruction in the principles of agriculture and the domestic and mechanic arts; that in addition to day courses cities and towns provide evening courses for persons already employed in trades; and that provision be made for the instruction in part-time day classes of children between the ages of fourteen and eighteen years who may be employed during the remainder of the day, to the end that instruction in the principles and the practice of the arts may go on together.

The second line of recommendations which takes the form of a bill submitted to the legislature represents a plan for furthering the development of independent industrial schools through a

state commission of industrial education. This bill which is now before the legislature authorizes the commission to initiate and superintend the establishment and maintenance of industrial schools for boys and girls in various centers of the state, with the co-operation and consent of the municipality involved.

It also provides that the state assist the municipality in the support of such schools by paying a certain proportion of the expenses of maintenance. The establishment of a system of schools parallel and supplementary to the public schools, under independent control, would seem at first to be rather revolutionary, but as the commission points out it is in accord with the present state support of normal, art, technological and textile schools. Furthermore such an arrangement has many very practical arguments in its favor. The traditions of the public schools lean overwhelmingly toward the cultural idea as against the vocational and against this attitude provisions for industrial work will gain ground but slowly.

Again the public school system stands for the "open at the top" idea, while the establishment of industrial schools means, not the general training which opens toward the university, but a special training for a special class for a special place in the social order.

Furthermore the training and equipment of superintendents and other officers directly in charge of public school work do not fit them to deal effectively with the proposed new order of schools. Such schools present a very special set of problems which require special knowledge and experience for their solution. On the whole such schools are more apt to reach speedy and successful development and to attain effective adjustment with the industrial situation, if guided by a central expert authority with a main purpose clearly in view, rather than under the administration of inexpert school boards and superintendents.

Massachusetts is at present somewhat behind certain other states in provisions for industrial education. The passing of the proposed bill would place her distinctly in the lead in this enormously important field of social and economic endeavor.

The Dominant Note of the Modern Philanthropy

Edward T. Devine

(Address as president of the 33d National Conference of Charities and Correction, Philadelphia, May 9, 1906. In the speaker's absence, the address was distributed on the opening night of the conference.)

The history of this National Conference of Charities and Correction begins with the problems of charitable institutions supported by taxation, and caring for those persons, adults and children, who by reason of infirmity or misconduct are for the time being wards of the state. Whatever excursions are made into the larger social problems we return inevitably for our central fundamental and inalienable task, to the charitable and correctional institutions and those whom they shelter. Prison, asylum, almshouse, and orphanage remain immediately before us, cutting off, it may be, the vision of a regenerated society to which enthusiasts for prevention would direct our thoughts, and giving us with every rising sun the day's work of our hands. Whatever the secret sympathies or the outside interests of individuals may be, it remains true that the great majority of those who in the successive years have been enrolled in this conference are judged by their success or failure in the giving of actual support to the indigent or discipline to the delinquent.

Although prevention is to be preferred to relief it is a reasonable demand that this conference in its several sessions shall constantly return to the consideration of these problems of institutional care, and especially to the questions relating to the duty of the state and its political subdivisions, and that the undivided influence of the conference, whatever subjects it may from time to time consider, shall be brought persistently and effectively to bear upon the standards of efficiency in these institutions, and upon the standards of citizenship in the community which determine whether the institutions are to have the necessary financial and moral support, and whether they are to be held to strict accountability for their work.

It remains true, however, that these institutions and societies have their place in the larger social scheme of things. They have to do mainly with the wrecks of industry, stranded personalities, the handicapped, the inefficient, the exploited. Working with these unfortunates and thinking day after day about them, we may finally come to think that no responsibility for the general improvement of mankind rests upon our shoulders. But this is a mistake.

What we have to do has no meaning, does not become fundamentally worth while, except as we see its bearing upon the larger social problem of the generation. Unless we can feel that in the last analysis there is some social utility in the work of our institutions, societies, committees, state and municipal departments, they will not forever command our enthusiasm and loyalty, even though, as archaic survivals, they may still provide professionals an income, and volunteers a congenial method of keeping in the public eye.

The dominant note of the modern philanthropy is one which does thus relate the work of charitable relief and reformatory discipline to the all-absorbing social problem. This idea is not that of compassion—though sympathy lies at its root; nor that of justice—though justice, to change the figure, is its corner stone. The doctrine that the state must prevent starvation, lest starving men become dangerous, is so little the keynote of our charity that it sounds strange in our ears; and equally inadequate as an expression of the modern philanthropy is the injunction to withhold alms lest by giving we pauperize.

To these ideas we may give grudging assent, or we may indignantly, if illogically, repudiate them altogether, but in either event we demand something more

and something different. Again, we are not content to give alms merely for the sake of our own spiritual welfare, even according to the most approved canons of secrecy and humility.

The ancient Jewish ideal of not withholding the hand from the poor and the needy, primarily because of a sense of duty and of personal dignity—a sense of what is due to oneself; and the Christian ideal of infinite compassion—of giving twice what is asked, of selling all that one has and giving to the poor, of going two miles when the service of a mile's journey is required, of non-resistance even to malicious demands—these are indeed noble ideals and they have each their part in lighting our path. It is all very well to feel compassion for the poor, and to act under the guidance of the compassionate impulse alone when the distress which arouses our pity is due to some convulsion of nature, to some unforeseeable external calamity. It is all very well not to withhold the hand from the poor if the unfortunate whom we would succor can be made to stand by our friendly service. There is abundant opportunity to-day in every community for charity, for consecrated personal service of these kinds.

The modern philanthropy, reverently recognizing all this, is still unsatisfied. Some with the blind passion of outraged humanity, and some with the patient insistence of the scientific spirit are giving evidence of a desire to ascertain why it is that inmates come into our public and private charitable institutions from founding hospital to pauper grave, and into our insane asylums, prisons, reformatories, and probation schemes, faster than all our educational processes, our relief funds, and even our consecrated personal service have thus far been able to put the dependents and the delinquents again upon their feet; and why it is that out just beyond the recognized social debtors whom we support there is so large a number whose standards of living are intolerably low, giving constant menace to the health and safety of their children and their neighbors, sources of possible moral and physical infection to all with whom they come into any kind of social or industrial contact.

If I have rightly conceived the dominant idea of the modern philanthropy it is embodied in a determination *to seek out and to strike effectively at those organized forces of evil, at those particular causes of dependence and intolerable living conditions which are beyond the control of the individuals whom they injure and whom they too often destroy.*

Other tasks for other ages. This be the glory of ours that the social causes of dependence shall be destroyed. Other work for other agencies. This be the chosen field of philanthropy that relief shall come at last to those who in the very nature of the case—the child, the sick, the weak—cannot help themselves.

No doubt there are individual as well as social causes of dependence. No doubt the poor, like the rich, have their faults and weaknesses, the consequences of which recoil upon themselves. The moral and religious teachers of the nation, from pulpit, school-room, public press and fireside have their responsibilities for opening the eyes that are blind, for inculcating good habits, and preaching the sermons for which there are everywhere such obvious texts.

But since such faults and follies, such weaknesses and sins, are peculiar to no one class, since they are quite as abundant among those who give as among those who receive aid, may we not profitably turn to this other group of evils, evils from which the poor suffer grievously but against which they cannot effectively protect themselves?

I ask your attention to the common element in alcoholism as encouraged by the liquor trust; the cigarette evil as fostered by the tobacco trust; broken health and exhausted resources directly due to poisonous and fraudulent proprietary medicines; other injuries of a similar kind for which manufacturers and sellers of adulterated foods are responsible; the manufacture of sweated goods, with a sharing of the profit between dealer and consumer; the destruction of the health and the sacrifice of the lives of little children in cotton factories, coal mines, glass factories, and tenement house industries for the sake of their employers' profits, although in some instances also for their

parents' greed; the sending of messenger boys of tender years to brothels and hotels, to their grave moral injury, that the difference between their wages and the wages of men may go to swell the dividends of a great corporation; the abduction of innocent country girls at hotels and railway stations as a systematic industry, not merely to gratify the evil passions of individuals but also in order that the owners of houses in which prostitution is carried on may receive larger rents, and the renter more substantial profits; the payment of less than a living wage to girls in stores and factories, with sickening indifference to the methods by which the remainder is secured; the organized gambling schemes at race track and in pool room which hold their own in the Empire State by open and shameless bribe to the county fairs; the erection and management of dwellings which are dark, unsanitary, and indecent because they are among the gilt-edge investments yielding not five or six but ten and twenty-five per cent on the capital risked by the speculative builder, but yielding also a goodly harvest of tuberculosis and other disease; yellow journalism avowedly pandering in the one class of journals to a feverish love for excitement and in the other, usually sold at a higher price, to a morbid desire for salacious literature and suggestive advertisements, but both, as always, for pecuniary profit.

It is a long list, but it is by no means complete. Are not these, and other forces of a like kind, really responsible for the continual accession to the numbers of those who with their children come at last to require our help? And is there not a common element in all these agencies of the evil one, widely as they differ from one another, and divergent as their origins and their natural history may seem to be? The love of money is their common root. And this root of these evils, and, as a higher authority has declared, of all evil, is not, at least so far as these evils are concerned, an abstraction, an impersonal devil. On the contrary, it is embodied capital appearing at legislative hearings, or quite as often in the legislature itself, pleading against reform, the rights of property, the sacredness of

vested interests, the burdensome cost of each measure for the public good, raising the dust of argument to conceal the heavy cost of inaction and neglect.

The plea is made in the name of the rights of property, in the name of legitimate business, but it is a false plea and no legitimate business stands upon so frail a foundation. There are broad-minded, warm-hearted, hard-headed business men to give the lie to the false plea in every branch of industry. If it were not so we would all become socialists at once, and have done with an industrial order which must be carried on upon so low a level. Industrial progress has reached a point long since which makes the exploitation of the weak unnecessary. It was always a losing phase of industry when judged from the standpoint of the common good. With the progress in the arts and sciences, with the increased accumulations of capital, with a greater efficiency of labor, with a division of work and an organization of industry as wide as the earth, there remains not a shred of excuse for the employment of little children, for unsanitary tenements, for fraudulent food, or for any other phase of manufacture or commerce or living conditions which being interpreted means simply the exploitation of the weak. Legitimate business does not require it, and where it exists, as it does exist on every hand, its motive is predatory,—pecuniary gain for an individual with absolutely no social utility to correspond.

Business enterprise invests in improved machinery; business exploitation prefers to use up the lives of children. Business enterprise assumes the cost of accident and by assuming it learns how to avoid them; business exploitation throws the cost upon the widows and children of those who are sacrificed and pays of its surplus to commercial insurance companies which make their profits by fighting suits for damages instead of lessening accidents. Business exploitation preys upon the weaknesses of men; business enterprise develops their strength.

The reason why there is need in our day as never before for organized, concerted action against these serried forces

of evil is that there is already organized aggressive action on the other side. It is the financial interest threatened in any reform which makes reform difficult or impossible.

Housing reform might still be difficult even if there were not a strong pecuniary interest at stake in the building and renting of unreformed tenements. But it would be easier than it is. Child labor would come to an end in a twelve-month if there were not money to be made in the exploitation of child labor. The gigantic fraud of proprietary medicines would have been exposed and ended long since except for the advertising contracts and for that part of the \$100,000,000 annual sale which is illegitimate, as the cocaine manufacturers admit that at least 20 per cent of their output is illegitimately used. The pure food bill would have passed the Senate ten years earlier at least if the interests which are involved in the manufacture and sale of impure or dishonestly named foods had not appeared year after year in opposition to the health boards and the reformers.

The Consumers' League would have more success in its efforts if the love of a bargain ingrained in the purchaser were not reinforced by the margin of profit which remains in sweat shop products even after their price is fixed at a comparatively low level. The task of the temperance reformers would be enormously simplified if they had only to persuade the intemperate to mend their ways and to convince the young that abstinence is better for them than indulgence. I do not underestimate the difficulty of even this positive and necessary work. But what we now have to do in addition, and what we are thus far succeeding very indifferently in doing, is to fight and overcome a powerful organized financial interest, which is behind the saloon, and which is responsible if there is such a thing as the moral law for a very large proportion of the alcoholics in our hospitals for the insane, of the "drunk and disorderlies" in our jails and prisons, of the non-support cases with which our charitable societies deal, of the dependent children whose parents are finally adjudged to be unfit guardians.

I have yet to find the reform movement or the philanthropic undertaking which does not at some point or other see its efforts thwarted by some organized opposition which has its root in pecuniary profit—unholy, obviously illegal profit, or it may be quite as often outwardly respectable profit, sanctioned by law, and sharing, it may be, with church and philanthropy, but none the less at bottom anti-social, injurious to health or morals, worthy to be outlawed as soon as its evil nature is understood.

In this warfare against the active pernicious forces of evil in our modern communities the first need is for information. We are all culpably, incredibly ignorant of the very things which it would be most to our advantage and most to our credit to know. I deliberately charge the temperance reformers in this conference, and there are not so many here as there should be, with complete ignorance as to the reasons for the existence of inebriates. We are wandering in the wilderness of the prejudices and traditions of the temperance crusade. We think men drink because they have not taken a pledge, or because they have not been taught from certain elementary textbooks of physiology, or because saloons are licensed, or licensed for too small a sum—but of the far more powerful influences which have their roots in greed we hear nothing at all, or only such vague denunciations as are evidently without solid foundations in fearless and exhaustive inquiry.

I charge the managers and officers of institutions for the care of children with ignorance of the causes which have led to the orphanage or the neglect of their wards. Are they on our hands because of essential vices and weaknesses of their parents, or because they were the victims of needless accidents, preventable disease, or industrial exploitation? I have yet to find the report of an asylum or reformatory that deals intelligently and fearlessly with these questions. And yet what questions more pertinent than these can be conceived?

I charge the hospitals—directors, superintendents, and physicians alike—with equal indifference or neglect. If things are taken down in the patients' state-

ments on admission to be filed away in the office, if they are guessed at by wise physicians, or told to the nurses in the confidences of convalescence, which being blazoned abroad would furnish food for scandal, they are at least not tabulated and set forth in order by the hospitals so that we may shape legislation and social policies upon them. What we get instead is an appeal for funds to build and equip new wards, or at most a technical classification of diseases of which the economic and social significance is not at all understood.

Most of all I am constrained to charge my brethren in the charity organization movement itself, which stands pre-eminently for analysis of causes, and thorough investigation, with not having at all appreciated the importance of the environmental causes of distress, with having fixed their attention far too much upon personal weaknesses and accidents and having too little sought for the evils which might yield to social treatment and for the anti-social actions of other men for which our cases are paying the penalty.

It has been natural when we have seen an indigent consumptive with his hollow cheeks, or a worthless beggar with no signs of manhood left, or a premature little old man of fourteen whose life is apparently done, the fires of his energy all burned out before his time, to ask ourselves what was the personal weakness of this poor fellow, or what was his peculiar misfortune that he has thus been beaten in his struggle with life. Has he sinned or his parents that he has thus pitifully lost his chance? There was a place for that inquiry and it did credit to our humane instincts. But would it not be more profitable for us to ask a different question? Will it not be more natural for us to ask, in the spirit of the modern philanthropy, not what is his weakness, but who has exploited him for personal profit? The two inquiries, to be sure, often come nearly to the same thing—for it is of course on the side of our personal weakness that we are most easily exploited, but it may be that the economic inquiry will lead us to a fuller understanding of what has happened, and to some more rational course

of action for the protection of others, than the moral inquiry which does not go beyond the personal character of the individual victim.

We have long recognized that the process of pauperization requires a conjunction of moral weakness in the recipient with unwise alms on the part of the donor. Is it not time to recognize that practically all the other forms of degeneracy and dependence require at some stage or other a conjunction of some inherited or acquired weakness in the individual and an overt temptation or an unfavorable condition external to him which would ordinarily not be presented at all if it were not to the advantage, apparently, of another party to the transaction? *The most profitable task of modern philanthropy is to find this other party and to deal by radical methods with him.*

My friends, I cannot pretend that this is an easy task. But if we look about, we must, I think, admit with profound conviction that the alternative of continuing to care for the fallen and the helpless is also no easy task. The insane and imbecile, the sick and disabled, the widow and the orphan, the immigrant and the unemployed, the intemperate, the delinquent—the social wreckage of every description would it not be better if we could by any means lessen its amount? The financial burden of the dependence which we now have we measure in part, but the whole extent of it no man knows, and the crushing weight of it is heaviest upon the poor who are themselves upon the margin of dependence. If we accept the alternative, that we will throw our energies, so far as our present actual responsibility for the relief of distress will permit, into concerted, organized action against those forces, organized and alert as they are, which flourish by exploiting the weakness of the poor—or of the rich and poor alike—we shall find, I repeat, discouraging aspects in the position of our adversaries. The ablest lawyers are retained in their service. Vested interests will appeal, not without just grounds in some instances, to the conservatism of the courts, inertia, indifference, ignorance, prejudice, and a thousand complications will arise like stone walls before us,

and the walls may be covered, as some modern military defenses have been, with barbed wire to lacerate and annoy us. Against all these obstacles we shall have on our side the spirit of the modern philanthropy. But it is enough; for it comprehends justice. Its aim is conservative;

to re-establish the principle of individual responsibility upon the more sure basis of a nearer approach to equality of opportunity. Its method is radical; to strike hard with every weapon which is at hand against the organized forces of corruption, injustice, and predatory greed.

The Industrial Viewpoint

CONDUCTED BY GRAHAM TAYLOR

Triumph of the Joint Trade Agreement.

The greatest event of the month not only, but of the past three years in our industrial history, is the settlement of the differences between the anthracite coal operators and the United Mine Workers. The particular points at issue between them are already forgotten, and indeed never made an impression upon the public mind. But the result achieved, which neither party to the controversy contended for as their chief concern, is regarded with profound satisfaction by the third and greatest party to the issue—the public. That result registers the greatest triumph ever achieved in American industrial history for the principle of arbitration and the method of the joint-trade agreement. The arbitration actually forced upon the operators three years ago by the president of the United States, through the commission appointed by him to settle the strike that then imperilled the country, is now proposed by these same operators as the basis of settlement with their employees, whose demands exceeded that award. The United Mine Workers are content to waive these demands in consideration of having a joint-trade agreement signed for the first time by the officers of the operating companies and the officers of the miners' national and district organizations. When it is remembered that the former refused to meet the latter three years ago, and dealt with them only indirectly, even upon the insistence of the nation's chief executive, the joint-trade agreement may well be

credited with its most conspicuous and far-reaching triumph. President John Mitchell of the United Mine Workers is justified in making what he intimates is the last claim of his administration:

Some are inclined to believe that because we have not secured an advance in wages or any improvement in the conditions of our employment, that we have not accomplished anything. I want to say that I believe that you have taken the most advanced step in the history of this movement. You have secured what you have never before secured—a signed agreement with the operators. It is an agreement which is not entered into with the United Mine Workers, but with the officers of that organization. They have signed an agreement with your national president and with your district officers.

President Baer and his colleagues are also to be congratulated upon conserving the interests of their investors and the public welfare by relying upon the arbitration award which they reluctantly accepted when it was fixed by the commission, whose appointment they resented as an impertinent interference.

Above even these most significant results of this "thirty years' war" in our hard coal fields, another may prove to be supreme. For is not President Roosevelt's bold and unprecedented interposition in appointing the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission to settle the strike of 1892, justified by having restored peace to our greatest industry for three years and by laying the basis of just relationships for six years?

The immeasurable reach of this precedent into the future is at least intimated by its prodigious practical achievement.

**Trade Unions
Versus
Socialism
Among the
Miners.**

William Hard in his article in the *Outlook* for May 19, on the *Western Federation of Miners*, has luminously discriminated between that organization and the American Federation of Labor. It ought to clear up the popular misapprehension which confuses not only these two organizations, but more still the purposes and methods of trade-unionism and socialism. The contrast between the United Mine Workers and the Western Federation of Miners is drawn not too graphically to be unjust to either. Representing the attitude of trade unionism, the United Mine Workers are correctly described as accepting the present industrial system and regarding their employers as partners; as wanting to increase their own and reduce their partners' share of the proceeds; and as depending upon joint-trade-agreements of craft unions with their employers to secure their rights.

Representing socialism, the Western Federation of Miners, "denounces the present industrial system and regards the very existence of the employer as an evil"; "wants to eliminate the employer and the wage-system"; "is averse to signing contracts with employers," and "would organize workers not by crafts but by industries."

Trade unionism is thus shown to be the conservatism of the labor movement. The American Federation of Labor is to the socialists an "opportunistic body." "It has a reverence for the inevitable." "It is oblivious of principles and dominated by facts." Its "day by day, hand-to-mouth wisdom seems to the leaders of the Western Federation of Miners to be little less than treasonable."

So far Mr. Hard will be readily followed by his readers who agree with his conclusion that, from the standpoint of the employer, who must deal with his men, and from the standpoint of practical trade unionism, which, in order to exist, must negotiate with the employer, this declaration of hostility to the very existence of the employer does not seem to be good business sense and cannot fail to make settled business conditions almost impossible. As a business proposition in a business world the Western Federation of Miners is, therefore, open to serious criticism.

But those without the temperament of, or personal acquaintanceship with the idealists, will find it difficult to understand the very true assertion that while "Mr. Mitchell's organization is a business enterprise," Mr. Haywood's organization "is incidentally a business enterprise but fundamentally a philosophical agitation, which has brought a ray of imagination and of sentiment into the life of many an underground toiler."

That is as true of the initiative and ideal with which these rough American frontiersmen started out, as it was of our author idealists at Brook Farm two generations ago in the heart of New England. Socialism appeals to the imaginative temperament. This element of imagination is on the one hand closely akin to the religious faith which is capable of the utmost devotion; and on the other hand forms the working hypothesis within which the most rigid economic theory and cast-iron industrial system can be riveted with remorseless logic. Thus the artist-poet William Morris and the inexorably logical and philosophical economist Karl Marx do not find themselves "strange bed-fellows."

There is a tendency to fanaticism among those adherents of the socialist ideal, who are without historical perspective or evolutionary patience. Under cover of the almost religious fervor with which many espouse it, some undoubtedly hatched cruel conspiracies and did dark deeds that cry to heaven for justice.

But neither attendant crimes, nor unpractical fanaticism, nor impossibly unbusiness-like adherence to absolute ideals can explain away or do away with the socialist temperament and tendency in human nature. It has to be reckoned with not only in psychology but in economics and ethics, in industry and politics.

So far, the most effective way in which it has been reckoned with has been by a conservative trade unionism.

**Advent
of Labor in
American
Politics.**

Blind to the signs of the times must they be who do not see that organized labor is as sure to be a distinct force in American politics as it has long since been in Germany, Belgium, France and Great Britain.

The "grievances" which the representatives of unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor presented to the president of the United States, president of the Senate and the speaker of the House of Representatives, are, for our present purpose passed by as the occasion or pretext for this far more formidable declaration of intention with which the "bill of grievances" closed:

But if perchance you will not heed us, we will appeal to the consciences and support of our fellow citizens.

The effect of the reception given by the officials to the delegation of one hundred or more who presented this document, was demonstrated the very next day. For the executive council of the Federation of Labor then issued a "reaffirmation of the cardinal principles of the trade union movement." All these were reduced to one, viz.:

that the independent use of the ballot by the trade unionists and workingmen, united regardless of party, is most firmly and unequivocally favored, that we may elect men from our own ranks to make new laws and administer them along the lines laid down in the legislative demands of the American Federation of Labor, and at the same time secure an impartial judiciary that will not govern us by arbitrary injunctions of the courts, nor act as the pliant tools of corporate wealth.

The workers are called upon "to remove all forms of political servitude and party slavery to the end that the working people may act as a unit at the polls at every election."

That this is no idle boast or threat is already evident. For at Chicago, as at other points throughout the country, delegated conventions are being held to formulate plans for controlling party primaries in the interest of the labor vote. This very practical purpose of the Chicago unions it is hoped by them will be the rallying point for a national movement carrying on and out the aim and platform of this local "progressive alliance." With the socialist party vote steadily increasing and the trade unions in the field to seize and wield the balance of power within the other parties, it looks as though our American commonwealths would have to reckon with both the radical and conservative labor vote. What the balance of power in the hands of a compact labor representation

in the legislature may mean, has been promptly demonstrated in the British Parliament. Although there are only fifty labor members, the premier accepted the trades-dispute bill introduced by the labor party as a substitute for the government's own measure. Although it is aimed to nullify the Taff-Vale decision of the House of Lords and releases the funds of trades unions from suit for damage done by any individual member of a union, it passed the House of Commons by a vote of 456 to 66. With the unrestricted franchise in this country and the clear field for legislation by the majorities, the political dominance of our working masses is conditioned only by their capacity to unite with each other and act together.

Early Organization of Printers.

One of the amusing popular misconceptions of the labor movement is based upon the lack of knowledge of the early growth and later development of industrial relations. Yet the grotesque notion of the labor problem by people who overlook the historical perspective ceases to amuse when one realizes the extent to which it is the cause of bitter intolerance. The employer who imagines that the labor movement began at Homestead or was born in the railway strike of 1894, is led by this very misconception to think that his own power is, so far as he and his affairs are concerned, a sufficient solvent for the whole "trouble." The unionist, on the other hand, who fails to sense the time element in the evolution of trades unionism is the very one who gets the idea that everything can be gained at one stroke, provided it be vigorous enough, and who is heard fallaciously to remark upon occasion that "trades unionism stands or falls on the issue of this or that particular strike or struggle."

It is well for both of these types of men, as well as for the public, more or less impatient at the annoyances of industrial disputes, to get an occasional glimpse into the history of the labor movement—to see the historical depth at which its roots are to be uncovered.

In this connection no more timely contribution to the information on early

trade union movements has appeared in a decade than the careful investigation of Ethelbert Stewart, of the United States Department of Commerce and Labor, on *Early Organization of Printers* which has been issued in *Bulletin 61* of the department. At the very moment when a national struggle is being waged in the printing trade, and the participants on both sides, as well as the public, are agitated over the ins and outs of weekly and daily events, we are suddenly taken back one hundred years in "wage scales," "uniform wage conditions for the whole country," and "strike benefits" during the year 1786 or 1808. We find discussions as to the "man who works for less than the scale" and how he shall be immediately dropped from membership, and his name communicated to the secretaries of "typographical societies" in other cities, that they may be on their guard against his intrusion in those localities. It certainly gives the reader a strong impression that we are not in an age of unprecedented demands, as some employers' associations would have us believe, nor that "trade unions are a dangerous innovation and an invasion of American principles."

The period covered by Mr. Stewart is from 1786 to 1853. At the latter date the National Union was one year old. This was the predecessor of the present International Typographical Union, so that the present organization may be said to have had practically a continuous existence for over half a century. As he says in the introduction, the article "represents pioneer work in its field, not only in the reproduction of documents, but in the resort to the minute books of these societies" (referring to the typographical societies). The addresses "to the trade" or "to the public" have been reproduced in full, and for the most part without comment, the one object always kept in view being to let the workingmen of that period tell their own story.

Associated effort among the printers prior to 1795 was temporary, having a single purpose. When this was accomplished the compact was dissolved. The first, probably, of such un-

derstandings among journeymen printers was in New York City in 1776, when a demand for an increase of wages was made by them and refused by their employers, with the result that a strike was called. This proving successful, the association ceased. Again, in Philadelphia in 1786, an attempt by the employers to reduce wages to \$5.83 1-3 a week was made the occasion of calling the trade together. The statement made by the printers at this meeting has fortunately been preserved:

At a meeting of journeymen printers of Philadelphia held at the house of Henry Myers on Wednesday evening, the 31st ultimo, the following resolutions were unanimously entered into and ordered transcribed for publication. In consequence of an attempt having been made by some of our employers to reduce our wages to 35 shillings per week:

Resolved, That we, the subscribers, will not engage to work for any printing establishment in this city or county under the sum of \$6 per week.

Resolved, That we will support such of our brethren as shall be thrown out of employment on account of their refusing to work for less than \$6 per week.

Philadelphia, June 7, 1786.

The early payment of benefit funds from one union to another is well illustrated in the following paragraph which appeared in the *New York Evening Post* for September 19, 1803:

The president of Franklin Typographical Society, of New York, acknowledges the receipt of \$83.50 from the Philadelphia Typographical Society for the relief of such of our members as may be distressed in consequence of the prevailing epidemic (yellow fever).

The Philadelphia Typographical Society adopted a constitution in 1806. In addition to a sick benefit of \$3 a week and a funeral benefit of \$10, "in every case where a member may be thrown out of employ, by reason of his refusing to thought to listen to "demands" and take less than the established prices," the board of directors "shall advance, if required, on his own security in their discretion, such sum per week as will be sufficient to defray his ordinary expenses." In 1806 it began expelling members on first offense for working below the scale of prices. In February, 1807, it extended the obligation to all members, before resting upon officers only, to aid

Some Early
Minutes

members in securing employment in preference to non-members, by the passage of the following:

Resolved, That if any member of this society who shall procure employment for any person or persons who are not members of this institution in preference, and knowing at the time of the procuring of such employment that there are members of this society then out of actual employment, such member or members so offending shall on conviction be subjected to a fine of \$5, and for second offense be liable to suspension or expulsion, at the discretion of the directors: provided, nevertheless, that this resolution shall not be construed to the prejudice of members interesting themselves in behalf of strangers in distress, or emigrants from Europe.

The first mention of union cards among the printers seems to have been in 1807, when the Typographical Society of Philadelphia adopted the following regulation:

Resolved, That cards be printed by the society, to be renewed by the secretary every month, for the benefit of those out of employment, stating that they are not in arrears.

These are only a few extracts taken from the mass of unabridged quotations from the original documents. The compilation which the thorough research of Mr. Stewart has brought before us in convenient form, is alike invaluable to the student of trade organization and illuminating to the casual reader who may desire an interesting insight into early conditions—which will appear to him to differ astonishingly little from those of to-day.

**A Practical
Application
of Industrial
Training.**

The students of Lewis Institute, Chicago, have reason to be proud of a piece of work in the foundry of the institute. The past winter, a bronze tablet was dedicated to the memory of John A. Roche, first president of the board of trustees, who died two years ago. The work upon the tablet was done entirely by students, instructors and others connected with the institute. The casting demonstrated the excellence of the foundry equipment, and the ability of the students who carried the enterprise through to success under the careful supervision of their instructor. The modeling of the portrait, which is an exceptionally fine likeness, the decorations,

and the inscription were the work of a Chicago sculptor who formerly was connected with the institute as an instructor. The memorial is placed at the entrance to Machinery Hall, a building of the institute which was completed shortly before the death of Mr. Roche and to which he gave much thought and attention.

The significance of this memorial, however, lies in the fact that it exemplifies well the spirit and practical basis with which Mr. Roche sought to have the work of this great technical school carried on. When the estimates for the equipment of the new building were laid before the trustees, he suggested that the old shops of Lewis Institute had a sufficient equipment to enable the students to make all the machinery and tools which the growing needs of the school demanded, and that the young men be given this chance for a practical application of the knowledge which they had already gained. The plan was adopted by the trustees and immediately put into operation by the faculty. The students in the engineering department, who average in age 18 years, were set to work in the drawing and pattern rooms, in the foundry, in the smithy, and in the machine shops, making the machine lathes, and all the tools and appliances which the institute would need for its incoming classes.

**Are the
Unemployed
Unemployable?**

No citizen of this country whose memory reaches back a decade to the time when able-bodied Americans anxious for work were driven by unemployment into the bread lines, or whose eye to the future tells him that similar crises in the industrial life of the nation are within the range of possibilities, can fail to have a sympathetic interest in the problem which England faces just as often and as surely as every winter rolls around. The terrible experience of winter before last in London was only an aggravated case of the ordeal which annually in greater or lesser severity grips the British metropolis. Through the operation of the Unemployed Workmen Act we are at last afforded some careful analysis of those who constitute "the unemployed."

In a recent issue of *Mansfield House Magazine*, a resident of the London social settlement of that name comments at length upon statistics gathered from West Ham under the provisions of the Unemployed Workmen Act. This is the region in which the settlement is situated. He declares that the investigation disproves the statement so frequently made that the majority of the unemployed are unemployable. "That there are large numbers of unemployables we frankly admit," he says, but pointedly adds, "the admission does not make them any the less our brothers to whom we have a duty; nor does it make it the less true that by our present social system we have largely contributed to the manufacturing of this army of unemployables. But we have always maintained that in West Ham there is a very large proportion of 'genuine unemployed' men who want work and cannot get it, to say nothing of those who through age or other disability are prevented from working; and this position is now established beyond possibility of doubt."

In West Ham, between October 11, 1905, and January 31, 1906, 4,000 men and 150 women registered themselves under the Unemployed Workmen Act as wanting employment. Eighty-five per cent of the applicants had resided in West Ham for at least five years; 800 were born there. They are not vagrants. Nearly half of them are between 35 and 55 years of age. Half of them rent three or more rooms, so that we are not dealing with the very poorest; and these 4,000 are returned as having at least 12,000 dependents. The typical case, then, is that of a man about 40, living in half a house, with a wife and two young children dependent upon him. Fourteen hundred of the men declared themselves willing to emigrate, and 1,300 had received parish relief.

So much for the registration statistics; we come to what is more important, the careful investigation of the cases one by one. This work has been undertaken by a committee of workers provided by the Charity Organisation Society; it is unnecessary to say that the work has been thoroughly done. The investigation of 4,194 cases has just been finished. Each

applicant's answers were checked as far as possible, and his previous history traced back in some cases several years, and under different employers. The results are tabulated as follows:

Class I. The regular artisan	49	or	1.2%
Class II. The casual artisan			
and regular laborer.....	648	or	15.5%
Class III. The casual laborer.....	1662	or	39.6%
Class IV. The man who does			
not, cannot, or will not work	825	or	19.6%
Unclassified	1010	or	24.1%
	4194		100.0%

Class IV. is sub-divided as follows:

Past work (i. e., too old, etc.)	293	or	7.0%
Prevented from working (ill-			
ness, etc.)	157	or	3.7%
Won't work (drink, indolence,			
etc.)	375	or	8.9%
	825		19.6%

Those unclassified are returned thus:

In work	704	or	16.8%
Cannot be found.....	201	or	4.8%
Not wage earners.....	105	or	2.5%
	1010		24.1%

The main thing to note is that all the men in the first three classes are pronounced, after the most thorough investigation by a C. O. S. Committee, to be able and willing to work. There are 2,359 of these or 56.25 per cent of the total applicants; the "won't works" are only 8.9 per cent. If we deduct all the others—those who cannot be found, those who are too old, or ill, or in some other way prevented from working—we are left with 2,359 who "can and will," and 375 who "won't"; 86 per cent of the former and 14 per cent of the latter.

The figures do not represent anything like the total amount of unemployment in the borough; there are of course some "won't works" who have not registered; perhaps there are many of them; on the other hand, many of the best of the unemployed have not registered, but are trade unionists in receipt of out-of-work benefits.

Insurance Against Unemployment.

The continual pressure or imminency of the unemployed problem in the regions surrounding the London social settlements is indicated by the regularity with which the settlement journals give space to discussion of the facts or eager

speculation as to "the way out." The May number of the *Toynbee Record*, which is just at hand, contains some description of a Dutch investigation as to the best plan for insurance against unemployment.

In September, 1903, the Employers' Union of Amsterdam sent an address to the municipality pointing out the desirability of such insurance. A committee was appointed to consider the suggestion and has now sent in a report. It recommends that the experiment begin with the carpenters, as these are the only workers in the building trades there who have a well organized trade union. The importance of this point is made evident when the detailed scheme for operation is outlined. The committee divide their report into three parts: Part 1 deals with the amount of unemployment; 2 gives statistics as to the migration of country carpenters to Amsterdam; 3 deals with the financing of the plan.

For the seven years, 1898 to 1904 inclusive, the percentage of union carpenters unemployed averaged 4.2, being 8.5 in 1898, dropping in 1899 to 2 per cent and rising gradually to 6.5 in 1904. Among the unorganized carpenters unemployment during these seven years may

be put at 7.3 per cent. Unemployment is greatest between the ages of 18 and 27 and from 48 onwards.

After giving an account of trade union contributions, the report concludes that a well-organized trade union is at present the only center where a scheme of insurance against unemployment has a chance of success.

The migration of carpenters to and from Amsterdam was investigated as far back as 1870, and a study made as to whether a subsidy from the municipality would increase the evil of unemployment by attracting workmen from the country. The conclusion is that the number of working people coming to Amsterdam has diminished of late, and that as long as farm and dairy work are in good condition, the town will not draw too many people.

Dealing with the cost, the committee thinks that the insurance fund, which may be subsidized from taxation, should be administered by a voluntary society; but that the public subsidy depend on the voluntary society, (1) showing will and power to make an earnest effort to cope with the evils of unemployment, and (2) taking precaution to deal only with *bona fide* unemployed.

Report of the New York Committee on Hospital Needs and Finances

The Committee on Hospital Needs and Hospital Finances, appointed at the request of a public meeting held March 23, 1905, under the auspices of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, has submitted a report at the conclusion of its work. It has held many meetings, and, through sub-committees, has studied carefully the subjects of hospital accounting, hospital economies, and hospital support.¹

The committee, which states that it has received at the hands of the hospitals of New York the most cordial coöperation, is made up of the following:

John E. Parsons,	Hoffman Miller,
chairman,	Thomas M. Mulry,
John Winters Bran-	Leonard E. Op-
nan, M. D.,	dycke,

T. O. Callender,	Frank Tucker,
Frederick A. Cleveland,	Frederick Sturges,
Seth Low,	John A. Wyeth, M. D.
William H. Allen, secretary.	

The report follows:

This committee is strongly of the opinion that a system of uniform accounting, which shall take into consideration, differences of conditions affecting different hospitals, is exceedingly desirable. Some hospitals are large, and some are small; some are in densely crowded districts, and some are in the outskirts; some are general hospitals, and some exist to meet only special needs; some have ambulance service, and some have not. It is clear that the first step towards a uniform accounting which shall be useful is an intelligent classification of the various hospitals of the city, so that, in the comparisons to be made as a result of uniform accounting, only institutions that are fairly comparable shall be classed together. Given

¹See *Charities and The Commons*, Nov. 11, 1905.

such a classification, this committee is of the opinion that uniform accounting will have a double value both for the hospital management and for the public. Under such conditions, uniform accounting will not only reveal unwise and unnecessary expenditure, if that exists, but will also bring out, so that it cannot be overlooked, all specially meritorious administration.

It is a pleasure for this committee to report, that, while it has been proceeding along this line, four of the largest general hospitals of the city, the New York, the Presbyterian, Roosevelt, and St. Luke's Hospitals, have perfected a system of uniform accounting for themselves.¹

This committee, recognizing fully that uniform accounting is primarily a hospital problem, does not hesitate to recommend that the plan adopted by these four hospitals be made the basis for the uniform system, so much to be desired, for all hospitals of this class. We recommend that this same uniform system of accounting be adopted by other hospitals, so far as it may be applicable, the tables being modified as to details, according to the requirements of the situation.

To obtain the maximum of benefit from hospital experience, the individual hospital and the community should have a digest of hospital reports presented at least once a year. There is need also for a compendium of information regarding the work undertaken by the different hospitals and their methods of government, which alone will make possible the classification of hospitals according to function. This committee respectfully urges upon the hospitals of the city that they take the necessary steps to secure:

(1) The adoption of the above mentioned system of uniform accounting, suitably modified for the hospitals of the different classes;

(2) The preparation of a compendium and the annual publication of a digest of hospital reports.

While unwilling to venture upon specific recommendations on the subject of hospital economies, the committee expresses the hope that this subject will receive careful consideration by the boards of trustees of all hospitals. This committee is confident that no hospital can afford to be otherwise than always upon the alert as to this matter. Even a good system so easily slips into routine that the careful supervision, which even a good system requires, grows sometimes slack.

On the subject of hospital support, this committee requests the earnest attention of the public to the fact that the large and constant increase in the cost of supplies, during the last few years, bears exceedingly heavy upon the hospitals. Not only are medical and surgical supplies more costly than a few years ago, but every item of food is very dear. As a consequence it is in-

¹ The forms embodying this system are attached as an appendix to the report.

evitable that the cost of maintenance of every institution should increase. The modern standard of care for the sick also inevitably calls for increased outlay. This condition of affairs necessitates the utmost liberality on the part of the friends of every hospital, if such hospital is to maintain its efficiency; and still more so, if its efficiency is to be increased. It may well be that (for such hospitals as are aided by the city), the city can justly be asked to increase its *per diem* allowance for medical and surgical care, while these conditions exist; but it is evidently necessary that, before the city can be properly asked to do this, such a demonstration must be made of the facts of the case affecting all the hospitals concerned, as can only be made after a system of uniform accounting has been put into force. The city may perhaps be justified in alleviating a common pressure; but it can hardly be expected to increase its allowance to the hospitals until they are able to show, by a system of accounting which all accept, that the unusual pressure is due to exceptional general conditions. It is respectfully suggested that the city may, by requiring uniform accounting, do much to bring about such a result.

This committee cannot bring its work to a close, without expressing its unbounded admiration for the unselfish and effective work done in our hospitals. It believes that, upon the side of business administration, many of them can profit by a careful study of what has been accomplished by the older universities of the country during the last two or three decades. Until comparatively recently, the financial statements of these universities were incomplete; and they made no attempt to take the public into their confidence. In obedience to the more modern spirit, these same universities have, in many instances, developed a business administration fairly comparable in efficiency with the administration of a money-making enterprise, with a result that the increase of public knowledge about their work and their needs, has brought an immense increase in popular gifts, in popular interest, and in popular support. Precisely the same opportunity lies before the hospitals of the city if they will, with alacrity and intelligence, follow the same path. They must not only know themselves what every item of service costs; but they must show the public that they know, and they must enable the public also to know. It is the judgment of this committee that the hospitals themselves have it in their power, by moving along this line, to tap sources of popular support that will be adequate to any need. The value of uniform accounting, between hospitals of the same class, for such a purpose, is, that it enables the friends of every hospital to know not only when it is doing poorly, which ought to be only a temporary condition, but also when it is doing well, which ought to be the normal condition of every institution that aims to serve the public.

Edward T. Devine
Editor
Graham Taylor, Associate
Lee K. Frankel, Associate for
Jewish Charity

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Tenement House Ordinance in New Orleans.

Last week announcement was made of the approval of a tenement house ordinance by a sub-committee of the New Orleans city council. This week announcement can be made of its adoption by the city council by unanimous vote. After the fever of last summer, special investigations of some of the worst stricken districts were made and photographs taken showing dark rooms, old buildings turned into lodging houses where scores of Italians are often herded, with air supply for not one-tenth of their number; families crowded into residences with no increase whatever of sanitary arrangements, no supervision, no responsibility, and abominable conditions resulting. This information secured by the Women's League, supplemented an earlier investigation made under Kingsley House. It was brought forward at public meetings at which the mayor and other public officials supported the movement. The new ordinance has some six sections including in the definition of a tenement two-family houses as well as three. To what arm of the public authority its enforcement will be entrusted is not yet determined upon; and in this, of course, lies the next great task for those identified with the movement for sanitary reform in the city.

There was a large attendance at the passage of the ordinance. Many women who had engaged in the movement were there and at its passage there was applause. Indeed credit is generally given quoting from an editorial in *The New*

Orleans Times-Democrat,

to the women of New Orleans, who have taken such a deep interest in the sanitation of the city * * * They have done well to take hold of this housing matter so promptly, before the evil has reached serious proportions. We will thus escape the great trouble New York encountered when it set to work to cure the tenement house evil, the long legal squabble between the Tenement House Commission and the owners of the tenements that followed, and the necessity of pulling down many of these tenements and rebuilding them on sanitary and common sense plans. It is another case of "a stitch in time saves nine."

The Federated Boys' Clubs.

The movement for the starting and supervising of street boys' clubs, whose history was outlined in our issue for May 5, completed its organization in Boston a fortnight later by the election of the following officers and executive committee: President, Jacob A. Riis.

Vice-presidents: Carroll D. Wright, President W. H. P. Faunce, Dr. William Byron Forbush.

Executive Committee: Henry F. Miller, president of the Henry F. Miller Piano Co., George D. Chamberlain, president of the Springfield Playground Association, William R. George, founder of the George Junior Republic, Frank S. Mason, founder of the Bunker Hill Boys' Club, Lewis D. Richards, director of the Malden Boys' Club, Frank Beebe, director of the Holyoke Boys' Club, Mary Hall, superintendent of the Good Will Boys' Club, Thomas Chew, superintendent of the Fall River Boys' Club, Arthur

A. Wardell, superintendent of the Brookline Friendly Society.

Treasurer: Frank A. Day of R. L. Day and Co., bankers.

Secretary: Lawrence B. Greenwood.

The officers are all well known. The executive committee are all actual workers in the arena and are, for the present, grouped in New England, so that they may meet actually to direct the work, which is of course up to the present strongest in the older states. Mr. Greenwood, who will at least for the summer, be the working executive, is thoroughly known as an evangelist and has had experience as an expert in philanthropic investigation and accomplishment.

The new organization stands for the interests of about 110 mass clubs with thousands of dollars worth of property, which already reach at least 100,000 morally endangered boys. Its membership is of three classes: club membership, open to clubs of over 100 members; active membership, open to workers; sustaining membership, open to all friends of boys. The address of the secretary is, 35 Congress street, Boston. Funds are deposited with R. L. Day and Co., of New York and Boston.

The first work of the federation will probably be to visit and affiliate all street boys' club work. The organization is prepared at once to furnish information about organizing clubs and has a suggestive pamphlet ready upon the subject. It is also ready to act as an intermediary between clubs and men seeking employment as superintendents. The news of the federation will appear in *Work With Boys*.

"No one who is interested in street boys," writes one of those most closely identified with the work of forming the federation "can afford to remain outside this great co-operative movement. Its membership should within a few months be a real federation of all such workers and institutions."

The First International Congress on Unemployment will be held in Milan, September 28 and 29. It is promoted by the Societa Umanitaria which was

founded by the late P. M. Loria, to forward "the most modern forms of providence." This society has already created several technical schools, a registry office, an insurance fund for the unemployed, a bureau of labor, a technical office for rural co-operative societies, a credit bank for co-operative societies, and an emigration committee. Two labor colonies have also been planned. The congress on unemployment will take up the following points:

- (1) Causes of unemployment;
- (2) Means of preventing it;
- (3) Means of lessening its consequences.

To quote from the official announcement:

Unemployment is one of the gravest social facts pressing on the mind of scholars, political men and members of institutions concerned in the working classes' welfare. Widely discussed in all its importance and difficulty, the momentous problem has recently been practically handled and many ingenious suggestions for its solution having passed from the dominion of ideal speculation into that of tangible reality, a large harvest of valuable experiences is now ready to be garnered.

The causes and remedies of unemployment are indeed quite dissimilar in the different countries, owing to the diversity of economical circumstances, but they can, everywhere, be traced back to general principles which offer an large scope for international competition of ideas.

The debates will bear distinct relation to an international show of contrivances for the prevention of unemployment, to be added to the providence section of the Milanese Exhibition. W. D. P. Bliss, editor of *The Encyclopedia of Social Reform*, and Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor, are the American members on the international honorary committee in charge.

Sites for
New York's
Seaside Park.

Representatives of more than seventy civic and charitable organizations appeared before the Board of Estimate and Apportionment of New York city on June 2 and urged various locations under the bill appropriating \$2,500,000 for establishing such a park recently signed by Mayor McClellan.

Delegates from Staten Island pleaded for Great Kills, South and Midland

Beaches and Bentley Manor. These locations, it was claimed, were superior to the Rockaway site not only because the beaches could be obtained at less cost but because they were more accessible. W. A. Short of St. George said that 700 acres could be purchased at Great Kills with six miles of ocean frontage for \$300,000. The Staten Island locations however front on the bay and do not possess the health-giving advantages of an ocean park. The Rockaway Beach site with its 800 acres of land and four miles of sea beach met with most favor. Homer Folks, in speaking for this site, said that two features are essential for a great city park like the one proposed—size and accessibility. Rockaway, he said, could be made into a park for the whole city where the visitors could be counted by hundreds of thousands, instead of by thousands. As for its accessibility, improved transit conditions are sure to come.

Dr. John M. Brannan, president of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals said that the establishment of the park at Rockaway would ultimately result in the removal to Rockaway of the Coney Island fresh air homes, freeing the Coney Island property for park purposes. Others who spoke for the Rockaway location were H. P. Dumont of the Merchants' Association, Health Commissioner Thomas Darlington, Dr. W. G. Northrop and Michael J. Carter.

The Rockaway site is owned by Edward P. Hatch and Southern Pacific interests. Mr. Hatch will sell his portion of 425 acres for \$1,000,000 and the railway interests are said to ask \$2,000,000.

The special committee appointed by the mayor to approve a location consists of Comptroller Metz, President McGowan of the Board of Aldermen and Borough President Ahearn of Manhattan.

Through the newspapers, the details of revolting practices in the treatment of meats at the Chicago stockyards have become a matter of common information. With this phase of the report of James B. Reynolds and Charles P. Neill, as submitted to Congress by President Roose-

velt on Monday, it is not necessary to deal here. The demand for thorough-going federal inspection in inter-state trade is so insistent that it is not likely to be blocked. Less attention may be paid to that section of the report which deals with the conditions of employes and which confirms some of the charges made by Upton Sinclair in *The Jungle* and the statements published in *THE COMMONS* and in *CHARITIES* at the time of the stockyards strike. Here reform is not backed up by 70 million squeamish stomachs but only has common decency and industrial justice on its side. Will improvement be the less on that account? To quote from the report:

The lack of consideration for the health and comfort of the laborers in the Chicago stock yards seems to be a direct consequence of the system of administration that prevails. The various departments are under the direct control of superintendents who claim to use full authority in dealing with the employes and who seem to ignore all considerations except those of the account book. Under this system proper care of the products and of the health and comfort of the employes is impossible, and the consumer suffers in consequence. The insanitary conditions in which the laborers work and the feverish pace which they are forced to maintain inevitably affect their health. Physicians state that tuberculosis is disproportionately prevalent in the stock yards, and the victims of this disease expectorate on the spongy wooden floors of the dark workrooms, from which falling scraps of meat are later shovelled up to be converted into food products.

Even the ordinary decencies of life are completely ignored. In practically all cases the doors of the toilet rooms open directly into the working rooms, the privies of men and women frequently adjoin, and the entrances are sometimes no more than a foot or two apart. In other cases there are no privies for women in the rooms in which they work, and to reach the nearest it is necessary to go up or down a couple of flights of stairs. In one noticeable instance the privy for the women working in several adjoining rooms was in a room in which men chiefly were employed, and every girl going to use this had to pass by the working places of dozens of male operatives and enter the privy, the door of which was not six feet from the working place of one of the men operatives. As previously noted, in the privies for men and women alike there are no partitions, but simply a long row of open seats. Rest rooms, where tired women workers might go for a short rest, were found as rare exceptions, and in some establishments women are even placed in

charge of privies chiefly for the purpose, it was stated, to see that the girls did not absent themselves too long from their work under the excuse of visiting them. In some instances what was called a rest room was simply one end of the privy partitioned off by a six-foot partition from the remaining inclosure. A few girls were found using this, not only as a rest room, but as the only available place in which to sit to eat their luncheon.

Much of the work in connection with the handling of meat has to be carried on in rooms of a low temperature, but even here a callous disregard was everywhere seen for the comfort of those who worked in these rooms. Girls and women were found in rooms registering a temperature of 38 degrees F. without any ventilation whatever, depending entirely upon artificial light. The floors were wet and soggy, and in some cases covered with water, so that the girls had to stand in boxes of sawdust as a protection for their feet. In a few cases even drippings from the refrigerator rooms above trickled through the ceiling upon the heads of the workers and upon the food products being prepared. A very slight expense would have furnished drier floors and protected them against the tricklings from the ceiling. It was asserted by the superintendent of these rooms that this low temperature was essential to the proper keeping of the meat; but precisely similar work was found in other establishments carried on in rooms at a fair temperature. In many cases girls of sixteen, seventeen, and eighteen years stand ten hours a day at work, much of which could be carried on while sitting down.

The neglect on the part of their employers to recognize or provide for the requirements of cleanliness and decency of the employes must have an influence that cannot be exaggerated in lowering the morals and discouraging cleanliness on the part of the workers employed in the packing houses. The whole situation as we saw it in these huge establishments tends necessarily and inevitably to the moral degradation of thousands of workers, who are forced to spend their working hours under conditions that are entirely unnecessary and unpardonable, and which are a constant menace not only to their own health, but to the health of those who use the food products prepared by them.

**A Tuberculosis
Campaign
in a Lodge
Town.**

Newport, R. I., is a "lodge town." There are lodges for white and black, Portuguese and Italians, men and women, fraternal lodges, mutual benefit lodges, and religious lodges. Nearly every adult citizen is a member and every "leading citizen" a high official in one or more of these organizations. The strange and high-sounding titles of the officers alone

take up seven solid pages in the directory. In view of these facts and also because the trade unions do not amount to much in Newport, the committee on education of the Newport Association for the Relief and Prevention of Tuberculosis thought it wise to use this already existing extensive organization of the community to reach the public. An experiment along this line on a small scale last year was successful and it was decided to attempt to cover all of the organizations this year.

The first week in December a circular letter was sent to the secretaries of about fifty lodges (including grand lodges) asking them to officially co-operate in giving a lecture before their members. Very few replies were received, so after sufficient time had elapsed for the lodges to consider the proposition at a regular meeting, the secretary of the Association began a personal canvass of the officers, talking over with them the general subject first, then making repeated visits to follow up their dilatoriness in presenting the matter at a meeting, or to urge the advantage of official action by the lodge. This sort of work, together with the writing of numerous letters, at expense of time and energy, was kept up for a month. In general, it was found that the campaign could not be conducted from the office, but that it was "personal work" that was effective. Some of the officers of the colored lodges, for example, could scarcely read, and the workmen who were officers, as a rule looked askance at a letter; yet it was these very organizations that the committee tried hardest to reach and were most successful in reaching.

Seventeen organizations gave official permission to use their names, and nearly all of the rest gave valuable mailing lists and urged attendance on their members. The lodges mostly made up of workmen were most hearty in their support, while it was found more difficult to interest those drawing their membership chiefly from other classes. Just before the chief lecture, sixteen hundred letters and postals were sent to the individual members of the various lodges. The largest hall in town was se-

cured and the audience, though it did not entirely fill it, was a good-sized one. Dr. Otis, of Boston, was the lecturer and gave a practical talk. The sixteen hundred circular letters duplicated the good of the lecture and the securing of the mailing lists was an important result. It is hoped that the lodges will hereafter, as was proposed to them, pay the greater part of their sick benefit funds, in case of consumptive members, directly to some institution, for treatment, instead of to the consumptive at his home. One lodge is already doing this.

An Important Civil Service Decision.

An important decision in relation to the civil service law, and one which affects

the tenure of perhaps a thousand office holders in New York city and state, has been handed down by the New York court of appeals in affirming the judgment of Justice Gaynor of the supreme court, special term, of Kings county, in the case of William H. Hale against John P. Worstell and Joseph P. McNamara.

In April, 1903, an examination was conducted by the Municipal Civil Service Commission of this city for the positions of superintendent and assistant superintendent of public baths and comfort stations in the Borough of Brooklyn at salaries of \$2,550 and \$1,500 a year, respectively. On the eligible list the defendants in the present action, Worstell and McNamara, were rated seventh and seventeenth, the plaintiff, Hale, being rated third, and the same list being for both positions. At that time Worstell held the inferior position of bath attendant at a salary of \$900 a year, having been appointed from an eligible list on July 6, 1903. He was made assistant superintendent of public baths and comfort stations at \$1,500 a year, and on December 1 in the same year he was transferred to the position of superintendent at a salary of \$2,550 a year, and McNamara, who was then a clerk in the Bureau of Buildings of Brooklyn at \$1,050 a year, was appointed assistant superintendent, which Worstell had just vacated. These transfers, in the opinion of Justice Gaynor, who tried the case, were in law and in fact promotions and con-

trary to the statute, which requires that appointments and promotions shall be from competitive examinations and according to the rating established thereby. Justice Gaynor further declared that those persons at the head of the eligible list could not be crowded off in such a way, and that any rule of the Civil Service Commission which sanctioned such acts was void.

Many office holders in New York are said to have acquired their present positions by the same method which has just been declared illegal by the highest court of the state.

A Site for the New York Psychopathic Hospital.

The welcome announcement is made that a site for the proposed reception hospital for the insane has been selected by the authorities of the city of New York. The site designated May 25 by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, which the city is authorized to purchase at \$146,000 through the issue of bonds, and lease to the state, is a piece of land 250 feet deep located on the East River and extending from 73rd to 74th streets.

It is two years since the co-operation of the city and the state of New York in the establishment of a psychopathic hospital for the insane of the metropolitan district was authorized by the legislature, by chapter 760 of the laws of 1904, which authorized the city to acquire a site and to lease it to the state for the establishment of a hospital for not less than 200 alleged insane and insane persons, "for the purpose of affording them such speedy and skilled treatment as may be conducive to their more prompt recovery." The matter has been kept before the Board of Estimate and Apportionment by the State Commission in Lunacy and the State Charities Aid Association, which have co-operated for several years to procure such a hospital. The matter was taken up by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment at meetings held May 9, July 14, September 29, and December 29, 1905, and April 13 and May 25, 1906. The site finally selected, while in some ways not so desirable as those first considered,

the acquisition of which was opposed by property owners in the neighborhood, is sufficiently convenient of access and is surrounded by property, the owners of which do not object to its use for this purpose.

It now remains for the state authorities to approve this selection, and then to take steps to erect suitable buildings for the proposed hospital. The desirability of such a hospital has so often been mentioned in this magazine that it seems unnecessary to rehearse at this time the reasons which led to its establishment. It seems reasonable to hope that such an institution, through its accessibility to the public and to the medical schools, will result in the prevention of many cases of insanity and in the cure of a larger number of persons afflicted with mental diseases in the incipient and acute stages; and that the medical profession now so generally uninstructed in the principles of psychiatry will become more widely and more thoroughly educated in this important branch of medical knowledge. Such education would benefit in turn the general community by the early recognition and the preventive treatment of mental disease, which now affects one in 294 of the population of New York state.

The Appointment of
Dr. Charles W. Pilgrim.

Governor Higgins of New York has appointed Dr. Charles W. Pilgrim as president of the State Commission in Lunacy to succeed Dr. William Mabon, resigned. Dr. Pilgrim leaves the superintendency of the Hudson River State Hospital at Poughkeepsie, one of the largest and best of the New York state hospitals with a population of about 2,200 patients. From a recently published biographical notice of Dr. Pilgrim we quote the following:

Dr. Charles W. Pilgrim was born March 27, 1855, in Monroe, Orange County, N. Y. He was admitted to the practice of medicine in 1881, having received his degree from New York University. In the same year he was appointed house physician at the Bellevue Hospital where he remained until 1882. In that year Dr. Carlos F. McDonald, at that time superintendent of the Asylum for Insane Criminals at Auburn, appointed Dr. Pilgrim as assistant physician, where he re-

mained but for a few months, having received an appointment as assistant physician at the Utica State Hospital, whose superintendent was Dr. John P. Gray, at that time the most noted alienist in the United States. Dr. Pilgrim remained in this position until 1885, when he determined to take a course of special study in Europe. During the years 1885 and 1886 he was house physician in the Frauen Klinik, Munich, and studied special courses in the University of Austria. He returned to this country and from 1887 to 1888 was again assistant physician at the Utica State Hospital. The following year he again went abroad to Europe for the purpose of further studying the care and treatment of the insane, visiting the majority of the hospitals for this purpose.

In 1889 he was appointed superintendent of the Willard State Hospital, at that time the largest hospital for the treatment of the insane under the control of the state. He remained in this position until 1893, when he was appointed superintendent of the Hudson River State Hospital at Poughkeepsie, N. Y., where he has since remained.

For several years Dr. Pilgrim was associate editor of the *American Journal of Insanity*. He has been a frequent contributor to periodicals on medical science on the subject of insanity. He is a member of various scientific bodies and is now secretary of the American Medico-Psychological Association, member of the Lotus Club of New York, and fellow of the New York Academy of Medicine.

Dr. Pilgrim's appointment to the presidency of the State Commission in Lunacy meets with very general satisfaction. He is well known to the friends of the insane in the state and throughout the country and is greatly respected in scientific and charitable circles. It is felt that he will maintain the best traditions of the state's service.

Notes of the Week

\$10,000 for Free Hospital Bed.—The New Haven, Connecticut, hospital has announced an anonymous gift of \$10,000 to endow a free bed for the Organized Charities Association of that city.

Baltimore's New Hospital.—Plans have been adopted for Baltimore's \$125,000 municipal hospital for contagious diseases. There are to be four pavilions, an administration building, a disinfecting plant, laundry and chapel. There will be four wards in each pavilion with provisions for treating three or four private patients and about thirty-two public patients. As only \$25,000 is now available, the idea is to build one permanent building at once and erect the others as appropriations are made.

The Conference on the Education of Backward, Truant and Delinquent Children

F. H. Nibecker

Superintendent House of Refuge, Glen Mills, Pa.

The third annual meeting of the conference on the education of backward, truant and delinquent children, was held in Philadelphia, May 7-9. The necessity of beginning the meetings on Monday in order to avoid any conflict with the National Conference of Charities and Corrections caused some little anxiety lest people from a distance might not be able to arrive in time for the earlier sessions. When the first session opened, however, at two o'clock on Monday afternoon, there were representatives present from a dozen or more states and nearly two hundred people, making a very excellent assembly of those whose thought and work had given them a special interest in the subjects which were to be discussed.

A paper by Dr. Martin W. Barr, of Elwyn, Pa., discussed the subject of irresponsibles in an exhaustive way, and Dr. Lightner Witmer's paper upon what we may expect of the grade teacher in the discovery, education and treatment of backward children was equally satisfactory. This latter paper made plain that teachers of grades in public and special schools should fit themselves for making proper tests for any deficiencies, either physical or mental, in their pupils. Several years, it was declared, would be necessary to acquire this skill, beginning with the simpler tests first and progressing to those which are more difficult.

The evening session was taken up entirely by the addresses of F. H. Nibecker, president of the conference, and Dr. William J. Shearer, superintendent of schools at Elizabeth, New Jersey.

The president's address dealt principally with the fact that the observations in special schools and compulsory one-half time in public schools had demonstrated that one-half the time usually devoted to the regular curriculum of the graded school is actually wasted to the very great detriment of the pupils be-

cause of the bad influence of over-strain, of too long concentrated application in the case of the backward, and because of the destruction of the mental power of the brighter pupils resulting from the absence of the necessity for application during school hours. It was further claimed that physical training is actually absent from the present curriculum, as is also motor education. The remedy suggested was that pupils should attend to the regular grade studies for one session in the day and the other session, in an entirely different building equipped for the purpose, should be devoted to physical training and motor education.

Dr. Shearer insisted that the methods of the public schools are responsible for much of the backwardness shown by the pupils. A plan was outlined by him, requiring no more time in the school than is now spent, whereby the number of grade divisions is immensely increased; the pupil's work is adapted to his capacity and none is compelled to over-work, trying to keep up with the more capable. Both of the addresses called forth lively discussion.

Tuesday was spent at Glen Mills, inspecting the school of letters in the morning and discussing the same with the apportionment of time, under the leadership of O. E. Darnell, of Washington, D. C.

In the afternoon a general outline of the plans and principles of the manual department of the institution was given by the superintendent, after which the shops were inspected and the methods pursued were explained. In brief, these are to occupy all of a boy's time during his stay in the school with work in some particular line or trade. The work, however, being so arranged as to conform to well-accepted pedagogic principles. It is a first principle that some kind of work sufficiently advanced to test the pupil's ability shall always be furnished as soon

as he can take it up with any prospect of success. In this way, interesting work in the manufacture of useful articles of furniture, and also buildings for the school itself, is carried on.

During the afternoon a demonstration of the regular work in the gymnasium, military drill and band instruction was given. In the evening, the delegation, of whom there were about one hundred and fifty, met the pupils in the chapel where chorus singing of festal anthems was illustrated. George Ball, of Terre Haute, Indiana, and George B. Robinson, of New York city, addressed the pupils.

The meeting on Wednesday morning in Philadelphia was devoted to the hearing of the latest developments in school buildings and facilities for boarding schools for delinquents. Franklin H. Briggs, of Rochester, New York, described in detail the plans for the new home for the Rochester Industrial School at Rush, New York. These involve widely separated agricultural families of about twenty-five pupils and a central quadrangle with homes for those engaged in industrial work of other kinds. This description called forth considerable questioning. Mr.

Hilles, of the Children's Village at Dobbs Ferry, New York, gave a very complete account of this school which is now in full operation.

The afternoon of the same day, T. H. MacQueary, of the Chicago Parental School, spoke concerning the methods of education of truants, and expressed opinions somewhat at variance with commonly accepted views concerning the capacity and character of such pupils. At the same session, Mrs. Morse, superintendent of the State Industrial School at Lancaster, Mass., dealt with the problem of the education of the delinquent girl. Her paper was full of short, terse expressions of what to do and what not to do, and undoubtedly carried with it very much that was instructive and suggestive to those who are engaged in her line of work.

It is impossible in a brief résumé of this kind to give an adequate idea of the work of the conference. All papers and discussions are to be published from stenographic reports, and can be secured by communicating with the secretary, O. E. Darnell, of Washington, D. C., or with the president, James Allison, Cincinnati, Ohio.

The Special Schools of Philadelphia

Edward A. Huntington

Principal Special School No. 3, German town

The "special schools" of Philadelphia owe their origin to the enactment of laws providing for the attendance of children in the schools of the commonwealth. The framers of the first act, that of 1897, recognized that the law would most affect a large mass of unfortunate, undisciplined children whose presence in the regular elementary schools might be undesirable. They therefore made provision "that boards of directors or controllers of any school district, or of two or more districts, may establish special schools for children who are habitual truants, or who are insubordinate or disorderly during their attendance upon instruction in the public schools." The succeeding law, now operative, that of 1901, made no change in this provision. The manner

in which these schools were to be organized was left entirely to the discretion of the school boards. Such schools, however, were to be conducted with a view to the improvement and to the restoration of the children to the schools which they should properly attend.

Of Growth
and
Development.

The first school was opened in September, 1898, the second in February of the following year. These schools continued their existence under difficulties, but they proved their worth. Three years later their value was more fully realized, and in April, 1902, school No. 3 was established. As rapidly as appropriations would allow, new schools have been added, until now there are ten with accommodations for about eight

hundred pupils. In five of these schools special classes have been established for defectives, both girls and boys, who, though not in need of institutional treatment may be benefited by public school training. These are officially known as "classes for backward children."

In the establishment of the special schools great difficulty was experienced in finding suitable buildings. Until two years ago school No. 1 had its home in an old church edifice. It is now admirably housed in a substantial brick structure erected for its use. School No. 3 is well placed in a small stone building that was planned for a private school. The others are less fortunate. Some are located in small abandoned primary schools, while others are situated in old houses. The importance of the work demands suitable structures. It is expected that in the near future many improvements will be made.

Organization and Work.

Each of these schools is organized as a small elementary manual training school with from three to seven teachers, one of whom is an instructor in manual work. Except in one instance the teacher of the highest grades acts as principal. Each teacher is responsible for the work of from two to three school years. The manual teacher is provided with a room equipped with from ten to twelve cabinet makers' benches, each with its individual set of tools. The sessions are held from nine A. M. until two P. M., one quarter-hour being allowed for a forenoon recess and one half-hour for lunch. The continuous session is necessitated by the distance traversed by many of the pupils. Separate recess periods are arranged for backward children so as to prevent their contact with the other members of the school.

The pupils of the special schools are admitted through the officers of the bureau of compulsory education. Some are children who have been found on the streets, boys who have scarcely known school life. Others are working boys who attend during periods of non-employment. In the larger number of cases the pupils are children who have been

removed from regular school classes owing to their defectiveness or disorderly behavior. Nearly all are boys who, were it not for the special schools, would be roaming about the streets, playing around railroads and on vacant lots, keeping the police busy and furnishing the juvenile court with material for its deliberations.

To transform such children into orderly, self-respecting, earnest pupils involves more than mere schooling. If it is highly desirable that ordinary children be individually understood by the teacher, much more these. Each school should be a laboratory for scientific child study. Careful observation of special school pupils brings to light almost every phase of physical, moral and mental abnormality in child development. An exact knowledge of these provisions and defects is absolutely essential to the successful treatment of each case.

Of Physical and Mental Defects.

The physical defects are of most importance, for often they are the cause of moral and mental weaknesses.

Faulty expression and lack of normal growth are noted by the casual observer. Nervous defects are common and manifest themselves in mere lack of muscular tone to tremors and palsies. Digestive disorders are frequent, and the effects of ill nourishment constantly seen. Misshapen heads, highly arched palates, faulty chests, and other developmental defects, and defects of the special senses, characterize many of the pupils. A large proportion have enlarged tonsils, and some have adenoid growths. In some of the schools but a very few of the pupils admitted are physically sound or normal. The greater number are defective in but one or two directions while a few are particularly unfortunate. If the physical nature of every pupil failing to conform to normal standards of effort is not carefully studied, many a helpless suffering child is destined to condemnation, criminally unjust.

Of the moral perversions of special school pupils the truant tendency is best known and may be regarded as a symptom of the child's inadaptability to its social environment. Truancy is one of

the first steps toward an anti-social career. To play truant means to sneak, to deceive; stealing may be a next step. Unchecked, the truant's progress leads to fixed criminal habits. Not all special school pupils are truants for some who are most faithful in attendance present moral difficulties far less easy to overcome. There are boys who at times are so completely disorganized as to appear insane. Some have high tempers and when provoked become violent. Others are too weak to protect themselves against the assaults of even smaller children of less muscular power. The school virtues are often replaced by everything perverse in human nature. Frequently these moral weaknesses represent merely passing phases of physical and psychological development and change or disappear upon the advent of a new phase of developmental history.

The mental defects are many and various. Nearly all the pupils are backward. It is not uncommon to find children fifteen years of age doing the work of the first and second school years. The average period of retardation is about three years. Occasionally children are received who cannot copy the simplest words from the blackboard. Feeble powers of sense perception and concentration make learning difficult. Some pupils, through injuries to the head, present cases suggestive of aphasia. In the classes for backward children there are those who are sufficiently weak to be classed as middle grade imbeciles. The mental defects present greater difficulty of determination, but are like the moral defects in frequently being due to physical conditions.

**Medical
Attention
Needed.**

Success in the treatment of many therefore must depend not only upon the detection of physical abnormalities but upon their removal by the physician or surgeon. The hospital and the school must be in intimate association. If a child is rendered irresponsible from adenoids, or dull and lifeless through mal-nutrition, of what use is discipline or instruction? At the present time special attention to the physical side of the work is not general and is given

only by those principals who have had special preparation. In one school, since its establishment nearly four years ago, about thirty operations were performed upon the pupils. All of these operations have been successful and in some instances the resulting mental improvement has been remarkable.

Aside from the removal of physical defects, moral and mental improvement depends upon so great a variety of circumstances that to give an exact idea of the work within the school would mean a description of each case. In general it is the problem of right habits much intensified, and the persistent, tactful development of weak mental powers. In this the manual work is of great assistance.

**Importance
of Manual
Training.**

Many a wayward indifferent lad has been saved to order and usefulness through his fondness for tools. Quite frequently boys, dull in school studies, develop considerable accuracy and judgment in the making of things. The greatest discovery that a morally disorganized boy can make is that he can construct something of value to himself and to others. The possibility of being deprived of the shop hour becomes for some a means of discipline. The day upon which the boys are allowed to take home the products of their handicraft is one of pleasure. Soap boxes, towel rollers, tabourets, give satisfaction to children and parents alike.

Another useful feature is the system of cards by which the home and the school are kept in constant contact. Each day every pupil in attendance receives a small card, colored blue or yellow as his conduct has been good or otherwise. These cards are dated, and so marked as to prevent their exchange or counterfeit. If a child secures consecutively thirty blue cards, other conditions being equal, he is entitled to a trial in a regular school.

**Defects
of the
System.**

A very serious defect of the system is the lack of a small residential school for the most difficult cases. In this institution should be placed only such children as the special schools cannot properly control. The parents

should be required to bear part of the expense. An expert in child study should be placed in charge. Boys who respond to treatment, when ready, should be returned to their respective special schools and all others, after sufficient time, should be passed through the juvenile court into such institutions as fit their needs.

Although the work is much hampered

by this and other defects, great good is being accomplished. An exact statement of the results achieved cannot be made, for to record that last year more than 150 boys were returned to regular elementary schools does not account for the many who have been saved from lives of dependency or the many who leaving for employment, have gone out stronger and better prepared.

Recent Magazine Articles

BOOK REVIEWS. *The Jewish Encyclopedia.* Isidore Singer, editor. (The Outlook—May 12.) *Stanford University and the Earthquake.* David Starr Jordan. (The Independent—May 10.) *The Americans.* Hugo Münsterberg. (Federation Bulletin—May.) *The Canker at the Heart.* L. Cope. Cornford. *Tuskegee and Its People.* Booker T. Washington. *The Queen's Poor.* M. Loane. (Charity Organisation Review—May.) *Immigration.* Prescott F. Hall. (Churchman—May 26.) *The Negro and the Nation.* George S. Merriam. (The Literary Digest—May 12.) *Municipal Ownership in Great Britain.* Hugo R. Meyer. (The Literary Digest—May 12.) *The Country Town.* Wilbert L. Anderson. (Literary Digest—May 19.) *Corporations, a Study of the Origin and Development of Great Business Corporations and Their Relation to the Authority of the State.* John P. Davis. (Yale Review—May.) *Principles of Economics with Special Reference to American Conditions.* Edwin R. A. Seligman. (Yale Review—May.) *Lynch-Law: An Investigation into the History of Lynching in the United States.* James Elbert Cutler. (Yale Review—May.) *Economic Method and Economic Fallacies.* William W. Carlile. (Yale Review—May.) *Modern Germany.* O. Eltzbacher. (The Dial—May 16.) *Irish History and the Irish.* Goldwin Smith. (The Dial—May 16.) *A Country Town.* Wilbert L. Anderson. (The Independent—May 17.) *The Abolitionists.* John F. Hume. (The Independent—May 17.)

CHARITY. *Some Phases of Relief Work in California.* Mrs. Louise H. Wall. (New Jersey Review of Charities and Correction—May.) *An Early Victorian Philanthropist (Harriet Grote).* C. F. Y. (Charity Organisation Review—May.) *L'Evolution de L'Assistance des Aliénés en Allemagne.* Dr. Paul Serieux. (Revue Philanthropique—May 15.) *Public Care of the Sick and Mentally Defective.* William Mabon. (Read at Sixth State Conf. of Charities and Correction.) (Saint Vincent de Paul Quarterly—May.)

CHILDREN. *Contribution a L'Histoire des Enfants Trouvés.* Eugène Carlier. (Revue Philanthropique—May 15.) *A Detroit Home for Boys and a Boys' Club.* Hubert O'Brien. (St. Vincent de Paul Quarterly—May.)

CRIMINOLOGY. *Is Capital Punishment Defensible?* Chester Warren. *Crime and the State.* G. J. Forsyth Grant. (Westminster Review—May.)

DEFECTIVES. *L'Association Valentin Haüy pour le Bien des Aveugles.* A. Delaire. (La Reforme Sociale—Mai.) *The Care and Training of the Deaf.* Dr. A. L. E. Crouter. (Illinois Advance—May 19.)

ETHICS. *Religious and Moral Education Through the Home.* George B. Stewart. (Christian Student—May.) *Religion and the Public Schools.* G. W. Pepper. (Churchman—May 26.)

HOSPITALS. *The Middlesex Hospital.* Percy James Brebner. (Our Hospitals and Charities—May 15.)

IMMIGRATION. *Immigration.* Victor G. Heiser, M. D. (American Medicine—May.)

INDUSTRIAL DEMOCRACY. *The Western Federation of Miners.* William Hard. (Outlook—May 19.)

JUVENILE COURTS. *Address on Juvenile Courts.* Judge Grier M. Orr (Juvenile Court Record—May.) *The Work of the San Francisco Juvenile Court.* Arthur J. Todd. (Klondom—April.)

LABOR. *Conditions of Working Women* (address) by Mr. Edward Filene. (Lend a Hand Record—May.) *A Possible Solution of Some Social Problems.* T. L. Heaton. (Westminster Review—May.) *The Great Principles of Trade Unionism.* Samuel Gompers. (Weekly Bulletin of the Clothing Trades—May 18.) *Conditions of Working Women.* Edward A. Filene. (Lend a Hand Record—May.) *A Co-operative Venture in Holland.* B. M. A. (Charity Organisation Review—May.)

MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP. *State and Municipal Ownership v. Railroads.* Erskine Ober. (Public—May 26.) *Municipal Ownership.* E. P. Powell. (Christian Register—May 24.) *Analysis of the Plan and Scope of the Work Undertaken by the Commission on Public Ownership and Operation.* Edward A. Moffett. (Bricklayer and Mason—June.) *The Municipal Gas Works of Berlin II.* Robert C. Brooks. (Yale Review—May.) *The Municipal Gas Works of Berlin.* Robert C. Brooks. (Yale Review—May.) *The First Municipal Street Railway in America.* Adella M. Parker. (The Independent—May 17.)

NEGRO. *A Notable Instance of the Negro in Politics.* Booker T. Washington. (The Outlook—May 12.)

RACE PROBLEM. *The Negro and the South.* Harry Stillwell Edwards. (Century—June.)

SANITATION. *Yellow Fever; a Problem Solved.* Samuel Hopkins Adams. (McClure's—June.) *The Mosquito Question.* Dr. Quimtan Kohnke. (Journal Public Health—May.)

SOCIOLOGICAL STUDIES. *The Caledonia Mine; a Sociological Experiment.* Arthur Cook. (The Outlook—May 12.)

SOCIAL STUDIES. *The Girl Behind the Counter.* Mary Rankin Cranston. (The World To-day—March.) *Social Betterment.* Thomas M. Mulry. (St. Vincent de Paul Quarterly—February, '06.) *Nuremberg, the City of the Closed Shop.* W. D. P. Bliss. (Outlook, March 17.) *The Social Work of the General Federation of Women's Clubs.* (The Federation Bulletin, March.) *The Playtime of the Poor.* Mrs. Humphrey Ward. (The Spectator—February 24.) *Musa and the Wild Olive, a story of the Egyptian Quarter.* Morghita Arlina Hanna. (Century—April.) *The Social Question—a Plea for More Scientific Methods.* Robert Gunn Davis. (Westminster Review—March.) *Increased Use of Public School Property.* Thomas James Riley. (Amer. Jour. of Sociology—March.)

STRIKES. *The Dread of a Strike.* Peter Roberts. (Outlook—May 5.)

TRADE UNIONS. *The Apprenticeship System and the Public Schools.* Luke Grant. (Weekly Bulletin of the Clothing Trade—March 16.) *C. B. Yields to the Laborites* (editorial). (The American Monthly Review of Reviews,

p. 528—May.) *Labor Unions in Politics* (editorial). (The Independent, p. 1050—May 3.) *Some Recent Aspects of Trade Unionism*. Prof. Nicholas P. Gilman. (The Exponent—May.)

TUBERCULOSIS. *Comments on the Results of the Sanatorium Treatment of Pulmonary Tuberculosis.* John H. Pryor. N. Y. St. Jour. of Med.—March.) *Prevention of the White Plague.* Paul Kennaday. (Weekly Bulletin of the Clothing Trade—April 13.) *The Treatment of Pulmonary Tuberculosis Amongst the Poor.* (Lancet—April 14.) *The Anti-Tuberculosis Campaign.* (New Jersey Review—April.) *Tuberculosis and Patent Medicines.* G. B. Pogue. (Journal of American Medical Association—March 3.) *The Anaemia of Tuberculosis. The Treatment of Pulmonary Tuberculosis Amongst the Poor.* (Lancet—April 14.) *The Anti-Tuberculosis Campaign.* (New Jersey Review—April.) *The Great White Plague.* George B. H. Swayze, M. D. (The Medical Times—May.) *Fighting the White Plague in Canada.* Annie E. Hutchison. (The Trained Nurse—May.) *Do Healthy Individuals Incur Any Greater Degree of Liability of Contracting Tuberculosis in Visiting Resorts Frequented by Patients Affected with Pulmonary Tuberculosis Than Elsewhere?* J. Howell Way. (New York Medical Journal—May 26.) *The Campaign Against Consumption.* Eugene Wood. (Everybody's—June.) *The Tent Sanatorium for Consumptives.* Woods

Hutchinson (American Medicine—May.) *Treatment of Tuberculous Children in France.* M. E. Broadbent. (Charity Organisation Review—May.) *Our Present Status in the Battle Against Tuberculosis.* R. Koch. (Colorado Medical Journal—April.)

TUBERCULOSIS. *A Unique Health Farm.* W. M. Danner. (Life-Boat—June.) *Tuberculosis Made Easy.* Charles L. Minor, M. D. *Tuberculosis in the Workshop.* H. R. M. Landis, M. D. *What the National Government Is Doing for the Cure and Prevention of Tuberculosis.* P. M. Carrington. *The Open Air Treatment of Tuberculosis.* J. W. Pettit, M. D. (Journal of the Outdoor Life—May.) *Fighting the White Plague in Canada.* Annie E. Hutchison. (Trained Nurse and Hospital Review—May.) *Placating the White Plague.* George B. H. Swayze. (Medical Times—June.)

TEMPERANCE. *Staggering National Drink Bills.* (Public Opinion—April 21.) *The Café; a Substitute for the Saloon.* Louis H. Pink. (Independent—March 1, '06.) *The Plague of Inebriety.* Rev. Canon Fleming. (Truth—May 2.) *The Anti-Saloon League.* Rev. L. M. Hartley. (Kingdom—April.)

VAGRANCY. *The Vagrancy Problem.* James M. Wilson. (Charity Organisation Review—May.)

UNEMPLOYED. *Worklessness and the Way Out.* (The Charity Review, Australia—March.)

Employment Exchange.

Address all communications to Miss Helen M. Kelsey, Editor Employment Exchange Department of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, Room 535, 156 Fifth Avenue. Kindly enclose postage if a reply is desired.

WANTED—A mature man to manage a Chatel Mortgage Loan Association, in the Middle West. Business and C. O. S. experience desirable. Immediate engagement.

WANTED—Man as probation officer for city in middle West.

WANTED—Superintendent of agents in city in middle West. Adequate salary. Immediate engagement.

WANTED—Man as probation officer in connection with settlement work.

WANTED—Young woman with experience in social work, as housekeeper at a settlement home. Engagement from June 15 to Sept. 15. Personal interview in New York necessary.

WANTED—Matron for public institution located in the country in Pennsylvania. Experience and ability to maintain discipline required.

WANTED—Man interested and experienced in social work, to take position in small town in the West, which combines settlement work and supervision of grammar school.

WANTED—Young college man with some knowledge of probation work to take charge of work in connection with a settlement.

WANTED—Correspondence with teachers interested in positions in institutions for the Fall; state normal schools or colleges attended, church connections, age, etc. Opportunities only for those who can grant personal interviews in New York in the immediate future.

WANTED—A Jewish young man to act as assistant superintendent for an educational society; state qualifications both as to education and experience.

WANTED—Governor to care for boys in a Hebrew Orphan Asylum; Jewish young man of education preferred.

YOUNG WOMAN experienced in visiting among the poor wishes engagement as church visitor in the vicinity of New York. Free in October.

SEVERAL young college men students of sociology are desirous of obtaining social work during the summer in New York or vicinity.

YOUNG WOMAN experienced in dealing with records in probation work, wishes to change location to Middle West.

YOUNG MAN of some experience in social work wishes summer employment as an investigator in New York City.

TRAINED NURSE wishes engagement in summer home.

GRADUATE nurse wishes resident position in children's institution.

YOUNG woman who has had experience in managing house, wishes position for the summer in charge of vacation home or similar work.

YOUNG man, student in a Southern college, wishes position for the summer, in camp for boys or other outdoor work. Is musical and an expert with the camera.

YOUNG woman trained in Domestic Science wishes position as managing housekeeper.

WOMAN of experience in C. O. S. work, a trained investigator, wishes position of an executive nature in the vicinity of New York City.

YOUNG man, successful in work with boys, wishes position in New York City. Evenings already occupied.

WANTED very much for an invalid man, a chair. Should any one have one to loan or contribute will they communicate with L. F. F. in care of Charities and The Commons.

Edward T. Devine
Editor
Graham Taylor, Associate
Lee K. Frankel, Associate for
Jewish Charity

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The Sanitary Condition of Portland, Me.

An animated discussion in the newspapers and elsewhere has followed a meeting early in the year of the Tenement House Committee of the Portland Civic Club. Col. W. M. Black of the U. S. Engineers, who was one of the speakers, called attention to the high death rate in Portland, which he ascribed to filthy streets, to the practice of feeding garbage to hogs, to dumping of refuse within the city limits, and to lax inspection of plumbing. Col. Black stated that when the United States left Cuba, the death rate in Havana was no higher than in Portland, in spite of the climatic advantages of the latter city.

The newspapers took up the matter. The *Portland Press* said editorially, "It concerns every one of us to know whether his strictures are well based and if so to find out what can be done about it, and to have it done."

The Board of Health has replied to Col. Black's statements by asserting that it has nothing to do with the collection of offal, the city council having authorized contracts with individuals for this work, in all but two wards. The handling of ashes is also said to be outside the jurisdiction of the Board. The responsibility for improper disposal of garbage and refuse is thus merely shifted. The statement that city inspection of plumbing is lax is denied.

The street superintendent says that the public works department is hampered by lack of funds and by a bad system of employing laborers. "We are obliged to keep a long list of names of applicants and they are given work in rotation. Ev-

ery fortnight the personnel of the street crews is changed. This means that a street laborer is loafing more than half the time, and, though they are paid \$1.75 per day on the streets, able-bodied laborers prefer to go where they can be sure of steady work. Any citizen of Portland who makes application is eligible for street labor regardless of his physical condition. If a man has strength enough to carry a hoe or a shovel he is entitled to work and draw \$1.75 a day while employed."

As a result of the general interest aroused in sanitary matters the Board of Health has made public this year the results of its annual inspection of the tenement districts which *The Press* quotes as follows:

There were a total of 564 buildings inspected, consisting of houses with anywhere from one to six families, but most of which were double tenements. These buildings were occupied by 4,255 people. One hundred and thirty of these tenements were found containing no traps in the sinks and thirty with the closets out of repair; twenty-six with dirty vaults which were ordered condemned, and 155 with vaults in good repair; twenty-six with dirty and unsanitary cellars and eight with unclean yards; six with other unsanitary surroundings. Six houses were ordered condemned and closed. These were occupied by seventy-five people. One of the houses has since been torn down. Two are to be torn down, and three have been so repaired as to pass inspection. Of the houses in which sinks were not trapped, one-third have since been provided with traps and it is promised that the remainder will be so provided. The twenty-six dirty vaults have been removed and the yards have been cleaned.

In addition to this work mentioned, the board has in a number of instances called the attention of the police department to

houses where garbage and waste material have been cast into the yards or the streets and this has been carefully guarded against.

The criticism as to previous laxity of plumbing inspection would appear to be justified by the board's own report. Conditions of uncleanness might well have arisen since the preceding annual inspection, but if there were adequate inspection of new plumbing and due attention to existing conditions at the last annual inspection it is difficult to understand how so large a proportion of houses in the tenement districts were allowed to be without traps, essential safeguards against the danger to health resulting from entrance of sewer gas.

In any case it is a hopeful sign that Portland is now aroused to an interest in its own health. Being the largest city in the state it may be expected to set an example to the others in dealing with sanitary evils.

Summer School of Philanthropy.

The following program is announced for the summer session of the New York School of Philanthropy:

Institutions—June 18-29, Alexander Johnson in charge during first week.

Monday, June 18, 8 P. M.—Opening meeting, Robert W. de Forest will preside. Address by Hon. Seth Low.

Tuesday, June 19. *New Movements in Institutions*—Homer Folks, secretary New York State Charities Aid Association.

Wednesday, June 20.—*The Neuropathic Family*—Alexander Johnson, general secretary National Conference of Charities and Correction.

Thursday, June 21. *The Care of the Insane from the Social Standpoint*—Alexander Johnson.

Friday, June 22. *The Feeble-minded*—E. R. Johnstone, M. D., superintendent New Jersey Training School.

Monday, June 25. *Hospitals and Dispensaries*—S. F. Hallock, M. D., assistant surgeon Manhattan Eye and Ear Hospital, and surgeon Demilt Dispensary.

Tuesday, June 26. *The Almshouse*—Alexander C. Proudfit, secretary New York City Visiting Committee of State Charities Aid Association.

Wednesday, June 27. *Modern Methods in Dealing with Criminals*—Eugene Smith, president Prison Association of New York.

Thursday, June 28. *Children's Institutions*—R. R. Reeder, Ph. D., superintendent New York Orphan Asylum.

Friday, June 29. *The Social Work of the Church*—Rev. George H. Bottome, vicar, Grace chapel.

The Care of Needy Families—July 2 to

July 13. Mrs. John M. Glenn, in charge during third week.

Monday, July 2. *The Charity Organization Society*—Robert W. de Forest, president New York Charity Organization Society.

Tuesday, July 3. *The Causes of Poverty*—Frank A. Fetter, Ph.D., professor of economics, Cornell University.

Wednesday, July 4. Visit to the country. Thursday, July 5. *The Administration of Relief*—Mrs. John M. Glenn, director, Baltimore Charity Organization Society.

Friday, July 6. *The Standard of Living*—Carl Kelsey, Ph. D., assistant professor of sociology, University of Pennsylvania.

Miss Mary L. Birtwell in charge during the fourth week.

Monday, July 9. *Co-operation of Volunteers*—Miss Mary L. Birtwell, superintendent Associated Charities, Cambridge, Mass.

Tuesday, July 10. *Delinquent Girls*—Mrs. Martha P. Falconer, superintendent girls' department, House of Refuge, Philadelphia.

Wednesday, July 11. *The Care of Discharged Prisoners*—Rev. A. L. Fish, chaplain New Jersey State Prison.

Thursday, July 12. *Treatment of the Mendicant*—James Forbes, mendicancy officer, New York Charity Organization Society.

Friday, July 13. *The Family and Natural Ties in Work for Children*—Charles W. Birtwell, superintendent Boston Children's Aid Society.

Constructive Social Work—July 16-27.

Monday, July 16. *Social Significance of Heredity*—Livingston Farrand, Ph. D., executive secretary National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis.

Tuesday, July 17. *Child Labor*—Samuel M. Lindsay, Ph. D., secretary National Child Labor Committee. 11.00 A. M. *The Development of New Philanthropies*, special conference led by Mrs. Anna Garlin Spencer, assistant director, New York School of Philanthropy.

Wednesday, July 18. *Vacant Lot Cultivation*—R. F. Powell, superintendent Philadelphia Vacant Lots Society.

Thursday, July 19. *Juvenile Offenders*—Charles D. Hilles, superintendent New York Juvenile Asylum.

Friday, July 20. *The Court and Social Justice*—Charles Almy, justice third district court, Cambridge, Mass.

Monday, July 23. *Social Settlements*—Miss Lillian D. Wald, Henry Street Settlement, New York City.

Tuesday, July 24. *The Problems of Public Health*—W. H. Allen, Ph. D., general agent New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.

Wednesday, July 25. *Employment of the Partially Disabled*—Theodore C. Janeway, M. D., chairman Committee on the Employment of the Handicapped, New York Charity Organization Society.

Thursday, July 26. *Assimilation of the Immigrant*—Lee K. Frankel, Ph. D., Manager United Hebrew Charities, New York city.

Friday, July 27. *The Individual Citizen and Public Charities*—Hugh F. Fox, president New Jersey Conference of Charities.

Chicago
Institute of
Social Science.

The summer school session of the Chicago Institute of Social Science opens on

June 25, and is in session until August 4. Professor Graham Taylor is director of the school. A schedule of study topics and itinerary of field work follows:

FIRST WEEK.—June 25-30.

Study-Topics: The city, its charter, and administration by mayor, council, and commissions,—their relative advantages; sources of corruption; reformatory efficiency of independent vote; the ward, its population, social centers, and politics.

Itinerary. Monday, 7.30 p. m. Meeting of city council and conference with the mayor, city hall, La Salle and Washington streets. Wednesday, 4.30 p. m., at City Club, conference with representatives of the Municipal Voters' League and the City Club. Thursday, 4.30 p. m., Chicago Public Library, Washington street and Michigan avenue. Friday, 8 p. m., reception at Chicago Commons, Grand avenue and North Morgan street, and conference with aldermen of the Seventeenth ward, via Grand avenue car from State and Randolph streets. Saturday a. m., inspection of the drainage canal.

SECOND WEEK.—July 2-7.

Study-Topics: Municipal departments, their human service; public works, sanitation and health, buildings, parks and playgrounds.

Itinerary. Friday, 4.30 p. m., at City Club, conference with civil service, health, and building officials. Stereopticon views of conditions. Saturday, parental school, 9.30-11.30 a. m., via Bowmanville cars from Clark and Washington streets, at 8 a. m. At 3 p. m., inspection of South Parks, playgrounds, recreation centers and the University of Chicago Settlement.

THIRD WEEK.—July 9-14.

Study-Topics: Public charities and correction; responsibility of city, county and state for the care of dependents, defectives and delinquents.

Itinerary. Wednesday, 4.30 p. m., at City Club, conference with city and county officials. Thursday, 4.30 p. m., inspection of municipal Lodging House, 12 North Union street, and conference with its superintendent. Friday, 4.30 p. m., inspection of Cook county jail. Saturday, 10-12 a. m., inspection of House of Correction and John Worthy School, via Blue Island avenue to 26th street and California avenue. 12-1 noon, the McCormick Works' Club. 3.30-6 p. m., Cook county institutions for the insane and the dependent, Dunning, Ill., via Elston avenue car from State and Randolph streets, at 2.30 p. m.

FOURTH WEEK.—July 16-21.

Study-Topics: Social functions and responsibility of industries and their public supervision and control. Wednesday, 4.30

p. m., at City Club, conference with state factory inspector and representatives of Employers' Association and Trade Unions. Thursday, 4.30 p. m., inspection of Sears, Roebuck & Co., Harvard and Homan avenue, via Madison and south on Kedzie street. Friday, 4.30 p. m., inspection of Marshall Field & Co.'s retail store, State and Washington street. Saturday, 10-12 a. m., inspection of Stock Yards, Armour plant, 2.30-4 p. m., Hull House, Halsted and Polk streets.

FIFTH WEEK.—July 23-28.

Study-Topic: Voluntary co-operation with public agencies in social and civic service.

Itinerary. Wednesday, 4.30 p. m., at City Club, conference with specialists in child-helping and relief agencies. Thursday, 4.30 p. m., inspection of Cook County Hospital, Harrison and Wood streets. Friday, 10-12 a. m., or 2-4.30 p. m., Juvenile Court, 260 South Clark street. Conferences with judge and chief probation officer at close of day's session. Saturday, 8 a. m., Illinois Industrial School for Girls, Geneva, Ill., and St. Charles School for Boys, via Northwestern R. R. trains 7.05 and 10.15 a. m.

SIXTH WEEK.—July 30-August 4.

Study-Topic: Civic ideals, and legislative, educational, political, and moral forces available for their realization.

Itinerary. Wednesday, 4.30 p. m., City Club, conference with representatives of Chicago Charter Convention. Thursday, State Prison, Joliet, Ill. Friday, Illinois Manual Training School Farm, Glenwood. Saturday, Allendale Farm School, Lake Villa, Ill.

Hours and routes furnished later.

Traveling expenses for trips within city limits will average about 50 cents per week and out of the city \$1 each.

Address inquiries for courses opening October 1 to the director.

National
Children's
Home Society.

The annual convention of the National Children's Home Society to be held in Louisville, Ky., June 20-22, will bring together a number of men and women who stand at the head of the child saving movement in this country. A three days' program combining numerous social features with the regular business sessions, has been prepared.

Governor Beckham and Mayor Barth will welcome the convention to Louisville. A program of the business meetings follows:

Wednesday, June 20. 9 a. m.—Prof. Charles H. Henderson, Chicago, Ill., presiding. Report of the national secretary, the Rev. H. H. Hart, Illinois, followed by reports from the states. *Progress of the National Endowment Fund*, W. B. Sherrard, South Dakota.

2 p. m.—*The Opportunity and Responsibility*

ity of the State Superintendent, Sherman C. Kingsley, Chicago. *Necessity of a Hospital in Connection with the Receiving Home*, Dr. Amos Barlow, Michigan.

4.10 p. m.—Discussion opened by the Rev. H. W. Slingerland, Iowa.

8 p. m.—Robert W. Bingham, Kentucky, presiding. Response to addresses of welcome, Prof. Charles H. Henderson, Chicago.

Thursday, June 21. 9.20 a. m.—*Greetings from the South*, Tennessee, Judge J. D. Ferris; North and South Carolina, William B. Streeter; Florida, Mrs. Cora H. Seaton; West Virginia, Rev. N. O. Sowers; Texas, Rev. I. Z. T. Morris; Virginia, Rev. William J. Maybee; Kentucky, Rev. R. B. Neal, R. G. Simpson, Samuel W. Bedford. Response by Dr. F. H. Darby, Ohio. *Problem of Colored Children*, Rev. O. Singleton (colored), Kentucky. *Work of the Kentucky Children's Home Society and the Board of Children's Guardians*, Isaac Black (colored). Discussion opened by E. P. Savage, Minnesota.

Thursday, June 21. 8 p. m.—Prof. Charles R. Henderson, presiding. Address, Hon. Robert W. Bingham. Address, Rev. E. L. Powell. Address, *Progress of the National Society and What It Means to Childsaving*, W. B. Sherrard, South Dakota.

Friday, June 22. 9 a. m.—District superintendents' conference, Miss Allie Jewel, South Dakota, presiding. *Work of the District Superintendent*, Mrs. Eva L. Evans, Illinois. Discussion opened by C. V. Williams, New Jersey. *Should District Superintendents Handle Both Children and Finances?* Rev. Marion Johnson, Iowa. Discussion opened by Rev. I. W. Bruner, Kentucky. *Should All Homes Be Investigated by the District Superintendents Before Placing the Children?* Mrs. Irene Webb, Indiana. Discussion opened by P. H. Hiser, Indiana.

Friday, June 22. 1.50 p. m.—*How Far Should "Aid" Work Be Undertaken by the Children's Home Society?* Discussion opened by William B. Streeter, North Carolina.

Notes of the Week

Appointed to State Board of Charities.—Governor Guild of Massachusetts has appointed A. C. Ratshesky of Boston a member of the State Board of Charities to succeed Henrietta Codman. Mr. Ratshesky is president of the United States Trust Company and is a leading factor in state politics.

Library Destroyed.—The State Normal School at New Paltz, N. Y., having been lately destroyed by fire, lacks Vol. XV of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, and is most anxious to have it replaced, free of cost. Any subscriber who has no use for his issues of that volume—running from September, 1905, to April, 1906—would be performing a real service in donating them to the school.

Teaching of Civics.—The People's Institute is now carrying on an investigation of the teaching of civics and social questions in schools, settlements, and other educational institutions of New York. The need for

such work is generally recognized, but the difficulties of conducting it effectively have often acted as a barrier to its introduction. The institute has itself conducted a number of courses in practical civics for young men in different sections of the city, and has also children's clubs working along similar lines, beside clubs for young men which are active in practical civic movements. A circular letter has been sent by the institute, enclosing a postal card on which the following questions are asked:

1. Have you had classes in civics, or lectures on political and social questions, this year?

2. Have you had such in recent years?

3. Have you any club or committee whose work includes instruction in citizenship and social questions, or assistance in practical reforms?

4. Will you give fuller information of this work to a representative who will call upon you?

Settlements or institutions which have not received this notice, or which have not yet given it their attention, are earnestly asked to co-operate in the investigation. Responses to the questions should be sent by letter or postal card to Michael M. Davis, Jr., secretary of the People's Institute, 318 East 15th Street. Reports, or any literature describing the work, will be especially welcome.

Fresh Air Work for Colored Children.—A committee of the Association of Neighborhood Workers, made up of representatives from several organizations which work among the negroes in New York city, recently met at the Hartley House under the chairmanship of Miss Mary White Ovington, to discuss the resources available for fresh air work among colored children for the coming summer. There has been little systematic sending of negroes on summer outings in former years, except in small groups to Life's Farm, on the excursions of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, to the Children's Aid Society Home at Bath Beach, and on a few other rather isolated trips. It will be a great help, therefore, to the committee, if any reader of this paper who knows of homes in the country where colored people will be accepted as visitors, or boarders, for their summer outings, will notify the secretary and treasurer, Miss H. T. Emerson, 81 Madison avenue, New York city. Contributions will also be gladly accepted, for a salaried worker will have to be employed, and there will be other expenses which can hardly be covered by the amounts subscribed by the settlements on the committee. Mrs. Simkhovitch represented Greenwich House; Miss Matthews, Hartley House; Mrs. Kimber, the Colored Mission; Dr. Bulkley, public school No. 80; Mrs. Tyler, the Nurses' Settlement; Mrs. Greene, the Hope Day Nursery; Dr. Sill, St. Chrysostom's and Mrs. Harris the Nurses' Home in 134th street.

The Work of Rehabilitation in San Francisco

A Ten Million Dollar Building Fund Proposed

Four communications which are published below tell the recent developments in the relief work in San Francisco. On the recommendation of the special representative of the National Red Cross, the Finance Committee of Relief and Red Cross Funds had taken steps to create a special relief committee to take charge of relief other than food and clothing and an incorporated body to erect dwellings and undertake other large schemes of rehabilitation. Mr. Devine's letter of June 4th addressed to Mr. Phelan, assumes that the chief responsibility for relief would rest upon these two bodies and that with an appropriately devised administration of the permanent camps under municipal authority in successful operation, the National Red Cross might withdraw from active work on July 1, or transfer its responsibilities to its regularly organized California branch.

On the day after this letter was written, however, there occurred another of those unexpected developments which have been so frequent in San Francisco during the past two months, but from each of which a more favorable condition of affairs than existed before has been secured. The startling rapidity with which conditions have improved, considering the unparalleled extent of the disaster, has not yet been generally realized even in San Francisco and much less in the world at large. What happened in this instance was that at a meeting of the Finance Committee of the Committee of Reconstruction (a body which is entirely distinct from the Relief and Red Cross Committee), at which there was no one present representing either the National or the local Red Cross, the conclusion was reached that the only body to which the national government could be asked to make a loan or an appropriation for the benefit of San Francisco was the National Red Cross, and that this organization was also the one best fitted to carry forward the executive work of special relief, erection of dwellings and other kinds of rehabilitation affecting private individuals. As an evidence of the feeling of San Francisco people, it was a

gratifying testimony to the manner in which the National Red Cross has thus far discharged its trust that the governor, the mayor, the Committee on Reconstruction, the Finance Committee Relief and Red Cross Funds and all others concerned thus expressed their satisfaction with the continuance of the National Red Cross in charge of the work of relief and rehabilitation.

In pursuance of this plan, a delegation of San Francisco men of large standing in the community reached Washington this week to enlist the government aid, putting their request before the president. At this writing, the outcome is not known; the newspaper reports having it that the proposition to accept municipal bonds as security for national bank deposits in order to relieve the financial situation in San Francisco, appeals strongly to both President Roosevelt and Secretary Shaw. The proposal to make a loan of ten million dollars from the national treasury to provide immediately for the erection of an adequate number of dwellings for those who are still in tents or crowded into basements, is receiving serious consideration. The indications are that, as a matter of federal administrative policy, such a loan would be made to the people of San Francisco on the security of the Clearing House Banks of the city, the loan to stand for ten years. This was suggested as an alternative to the plan of issuing the loan to the National Red Cross, the president taking the position that in making a loan to a permanent relief agency, which is likely to be called upon in other and minor emergencies, a doubtful precedent would be established which might prove unwise. Assurances were given by the delegation that however the loan is issued the principal and interest will be met promptly and that the government cannot lose a dollar by the transaction. The experience of the City and Suburban Homes Company in New York and other similar business enterprises shows that there is no safer investment than for sanitary and well planned workingmen's houses.

(I.)

SAN FRANCISCO, June 4, 1906.

JAMES D. PHELAN, Esq.,

Chairman Finance Committee of Relief and
Red Cross Funds, San Francisco.

Sir.—Since it has been definitely decided that the complete withdrawal of the United States Army from relief work is to be effected by the end of this month, and since the commanding general of the division on the other hand had definitely agreed under the authority given him by the War Department to continue until the end of the month those particular parts of the relief work which are now performed by the army, involving the largest administrative expense, viz.: the management and sanitation of the military camps, the transporting of supplies, and the administration of the principal warehouses, it would appear that the time is opportune to make a forecast of what the general organization for relief will be after this month, when these duties, or such of them as will remain to be discharged, will devolve upon the Finance Committee and Red Cross or upon such other committees and bodies as may be brought into existence.

Such a forecast may require to be modified if unexpected conditions arise, but it will at least afford an objective point towards which it will be possible to direct our efforts during the present month, and moreover it is of the utmost importance that every future change of administration shall be made known long enough in advance to enable those who are responsible for carrying it into effect to make suitable preparations.

I.—There is every reason to believe that by June 30, the general distribution of uncooked food and the general distribution of clothing can be discontinued. This is not to say that there will be no need of relief in the form of provisions and clothing, but only that the bread line, the clothing line, the relief stations and the civil section organization will have served their purpose and the number of families and persons requiring outright relief in kind will have been so far reduced that it can be carried on quietly, privately, and more nearly in the manner in which ordinary charitable relief in normal times is administered.

II.—The established charities of the city conducted partly on denominational lines and partly on secular or non-sectarian lines will by June 30 be in position to a great extent to discharge their normal functions. Many of them have not even temporarily suspended, even though their buildings were injured or destroyed. Others, like the Associated Charities and the settlements, have for the time being, through their paid and volunteer workers, taken an active part in the emergency relief work, losing to some extent their own identity in their desire to serve the community, but by the end of the month many of them will be in position to do what they did prior to April 18, and probably do

it better because of the experiences in which they have taken part.

III.—The Special Relief Committee has not been appointed to take over the responsibility for all relief from the funds of the Finance Committee, other than the general distribution of food and clothing, which we have anticipated will be over by June 30. The clothing and provisions remaining in the relief stores on June 30 should be placed at the disposal of this committee together with any other goods contributed or purchased for relief purposes, such as tools, sewing machines and household furniture, and a central warehouse should be rented or built for the storage of such articles in order to release the various school buildings which have been so freely placed at the disposal of the Red Cross and the Finance Committee by the Board of Education. Appropriations should be made to this Special Relief Committee both for relief and for its administrative expenses from time to time as its plans develop, and the extent of the need for which it is to provide becomes apparent. It will probably not be necessary, however, for this Special Relief Committee to organize a large staff of investigators or clerks, since it would be more advantageous and more likely to produce good permanent results if applications came to it chiefly through such well known existing channels as the Associated Charities, the Board of Jewish Relief and the churches of various denominations, and it might be possible for the committee to rely largely upon such agencies even for the investigation of such applications as come directly to the committee.

IV.—Special committees are now considering what shall be done about housing, and suggestions for a philanthropic pawn shop. There has also been proposed a plan for the incorporation of an organization under the law relating to the incorporation of benevolent institutions for the purpose of administering any funds intended for rehabilitation relief, whether in the building of houses or in other ways, and in case this plan is carried through, the specific objects now under consideration by the two special committees may appropriately be undertaken by this corporation. In any event there is likely to be organized and actively at work by the end of this month some legally incorporated body or bodies—possibly the Finance Committee itself—ready to deal in the broadest possible way with all problems relating to the rehabilitation of families and of individuals, so far as these do not come within the narrower province of the Special Relief Committee.

V.—The reduction in the food lines has been accomplished in part through the substitution of the hot meal restaurants on which Red Cross meal tickets are issued by the superintendents of relief stations to be redeemed by the Finance Committee at ten cents each. The supervision of these restaurants is at present in the hands of Colonel Febiger of the army and in so far as it is

necessary to continue to patronize the restaurants after June 30, it will be necessary to have some representative of the Finance Committee or the Red Cross charged with this duty. My own expectation is that they will largely be on an independent business basis by that date, and that very few people will need to be supplied with tickets.

VI.—The most important task remaining will be the supervision of such permanent camps and barracks as will remain after June 30. General Greely reports that there are about 15,000 persons in the military camps and estimates that there are about 25,000 others in and about the city, and its suburbs living under practically the same temporary conditions, a total maximum population of 40,000 persons for whose accommodations in tents or barracks it may be necessary to provide. This does not mean that the necessities of life must be supplied to this number or to any large part of it; but only that the authority, whatever it be, which succeeds to the present military administration of the camps must act virtually as landlord for this number, and must exercise whatever police and sanitary supervision is necessary.

It is obvious that the latter functions belong respectively to the Municipal Police Department, and the Municipal Health Commission, and that in discharging those functions these two important city departments are only continuing to do, under somewhat changed conditions, precisely what they were doing for the same people before April 18. Every dweller in a tent, whether in a public park or in private ground which has been secured with the owner's consent, should have the same right and the same responsibility to buy his own provisions, to protect his own property and to engage his own physician as if he were living in his own home. The Police Department should give general protection, and the Health Commission should guard the public health, watching out for contagious disease, supervising latrines, etc., but need not be expected to give general free medical service. On the other hand there should be continued a limited number of free dispensaries and clinics in which destitute persons who have no money with which to pay for the services of a physician, or to buy medicine, can be accommodated, with the ordinary safeguards against imposture.

What will be needed, therefore, in each permanent camp after June 30 will be (1) a business agent authorized by the Finance Committee, and in the case of public parks by the municipal authorities, to assign tents or rooms in barracks to particular persons, to collect rents, if rental is charged, to evict tenants when necessary, and to call upon the police authorities in the name of this committee when necessary for the maintenance of order; (2) a sanitary officer responsible to the Health Commission, and (3) a police guard responsible to the Police Department. The several business agents

should all be responsible to one general superintendent of permanent camps. The general superintendent and the business agents, in the case of the larger camps, will require a certain amount of clerical and administrative assistance corresponding to the military officers who are now serving in similar capacities under the military supervision of camps and the commanding officers of the several camps. Neither the business agent nor the sanitary superintendent need have anything to do with relief, except to report cases of destitution which come to their attention to the Special Relief Committee.

VII.—The Hospital Committee has already put into operation the plan which was adopted by this committee, of making an allowance to certain selected hospitals for such indigent sick persons as may be accepted as proper charges on the Relief and Red Cross Funds, and this will naturally be continued after June 30 without interruption and with such modifications from time to time as experience may suggest. The Hospital Committee may very properly be continued for this purpose.

To sum up, then, the proposed organization of relief work for the period immediately following the withdrawal of the army would be as follows:

I.—The incorporated body or bodies for rehabilitation relief.

II.—The Special Relief Committee in such relations with non-sectarian and with denominational agencies as may be found mutually advantageous, with a supply of clothing and other relief stores at its disposal, and such funds for relief and administrative purposes as may be appropriated by the Finance Committee.

III.—A special committee charged with the responsibility for the distribution of meal tickets, unless it is preferred that the Special Relief Committee shall supervise this function in addition to its other duties.

IV.—Permanent camps under the general supervision of a superintendent, with an agent in charge of each camp, a sanitary superintendent and an appropriate police guard. In some cases where a physician can be found with the other necessary qualifications, the duties of business agent and sanitary superintendent may perhaps be performed by one person.

V.—The indigent sick will be cared for as at present in the City and County Hospital and in private hospitals under the plan which is at present in operation.

VI.—The National Red Cross, through its special representative, will remain only so long as is considered necessary to inaugurate the plans adopted by the Finance Committee. If on July 1st the various parts of the work to be done can be assumed by the agencies which are to deal with them thereafter, it will be agreeable to the undersigned to be relieved at that time. If it is

thought by the Finance Committee that it will be advantageous for the National Red Cross to be represented on the ground for a few weeks longer, until the new plans have been brought into complete operation, I shall be glad to be governed entirely by the wishes of the committee. Continued absence involves some sacrifice of duties at home, but it is my desire to see through to a successful conclusion the undertaking in which I have been permitted to have some share, and not to depart until I can do so with the feeling on the part of the committee and the people of San Francisco that I have done all that it is fair and reasonable to expect.

Respectfully,

EDWARD T. DEVINE.

Special Representative
American National Red Cross.

(II.)

SAN FRANCISCO, June 6, 1906.

Dr. E. T. DEVINE,
American National Red Cross.

Sir.—I have ready for submission to you as well as to the mayor of San Francisco, recommendations in detail for the emergency shelter of 10,000 people before the coming winter. This looks to the utilization of ground belonging to the city and the construction of small individual houses with water closets and shower baths. The expenses of these buildings will not be far from \$300,000.

At this time, however, I write to point out to you the great importance of constructing cheap sanitary dwellings for the working classes of San Francisco. I do not know of any greater benefit which can be conferred to this city than the construction of sufficient houses to shelter, say, 40,000 people, assuming that in addition to the 10,000 people to be cared for by emergency shelters, that the remaining 200,000 people will take care of themselves either by doubling up or through private enterprise. As I before indicated to you, 185,000 people inhabited the burned district in 1900 as shown by the census returns, and the remaining 65,000 increase appears probable from the records of the street railways, the gas and electric light company and the water company. I may add incidentally that there are nearly 43,000 people now under tent or in barracks in San Francisco, about 3,000 people in Oakland, 1,000 people in Alameda and Berkeley, and say, 2,000 people in the Sausalito district. This makes 49,000 homeless people in sight, or practically 50,000 who I think must be cared for by emergency or permanent dwellings. It must be understood that the 40,000 referred to are certainly the minimum by the most conservative calculations.

If the Red Cross would spend some three

or four million dollars in this work, it would naturally need to be supplemented by three or four millions of dollars from other sources. * * *

Among the philanthropic and wealthy men and women of the East, there are, I feel certain, many who would loan a sum at least equal to the sum advanced by the Red Cross under an agreement that they should receive a moderate interest thereon, say, 3%, and have their advances guaranteed by a first blanket mortgage.

No doubt exists in my mind that unless some such steps are taken, there will be great suffering and considerable mortality among the poorer classes in San Francisco during the coming winter.

Wishing you success in your wise and beneficial efforts in behalf of the destitute people of San Francisco, I am

Yours with great respect,

A. W. GEELEY,
Major General, Commanding.

(III.)

SAN FRANCISCO, June 9, 1906.

To the President,
Washington, D. C.

This is the condition of San Francisco. All of the banking business, commercial and manufacturing section of San Francisco and over one-third of the residential section, particularly that occupied by working people, has been destroyed by fire. The population of the city before the fire was five hundred thousand. It is now under three hundred thousand. Forty thousand are living in tents or improvised shelter. About one hundred thousand are in neighboring towns and villages, ready to return when quarters are provided. The restoration of the city should be immediately begun. The construction of permanent structures will necessarily be slow. Temporary buildings must be erected upon some comprehensive plan which will house not only the people who are temporarily living in tents and in neighboring towns, but also the various occupations, industries and businesses which have heretofore employed labor. The total loss exceeds three hundred and fifty million dollars. The insurance amounts to about one hundred and seventy-five million dollars. The adjustment of insurance is unfortunately very slow. In most cases the insured are not permitted to remove debris until adjustment is made, and most of them will be powerless to improve until their losses are paid. To await such slow processes of settlement will be disastrous. Restorations must move on quickly under a comprehensive plan and with intelligent direction. The tent period has been covered by the generous charity of the nation and the civilized world.

Twenty-five million dollars is required for the intermediate period between the tent and permanent restoration.

The commercial and savings banks are in good condition, but the former cannot loan on real estate securities, and all we can expect of the latter for the present is to carry on their ordinary business on a comparatively limited scale.

The municipality is limited by its charter to borrowing for municipal purposes, subject to ratification by a popular vote. The state has also suffered largely through the paralysis of San Francisco, which is the heart of the state. Constitutional limitations restrain its power to act in this emergency. The process of meeting existing difficulties by constitutional amendment enlarging the power of the state and municipality will be too slow.

We therefore ask the aid of the nation, whose generosity and sympathy have been so signally shown, in some practical and businesslike method of financing existing difficulties. We suggest that this catastrophe is not simply local, but is national in character, involving as it does a great national port, related in a most important way to inter-state and foreign commerce, the regulation of which as well as all measures relating to the general welfare is entrusted by the national constitution to Congress. We suggest the following:

1. That the secretary of the treasury be authorized to accept the bonds of the City of San Francisco authorized by a popular vote before the fire, left unsold and now in the city treasury, amounting to twelve million dollars, as security for the deposit of national moneys with the banks. The bonds already authorized bear $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and under the law they cannot be sold for less than par. Fundamental changes must be made in the laws to enable these bonds to be cancelled and new bonds to be authorized. This will require a great delay. The suggestion made will enable the twelve million of bonds to be immediately sold.

2. That the United States loan to the American National Red Cross ten million dollars to be applied in aiding the re-establishment of the homeless in their houses before the next winter.

The City of San Francisco will be obliged in addition to the bond issue of seventeen millions already authorized and partly sold, to issue at least forty million dollars more of bonds for the purpose of re-building schools, police stations, public buildings and providing a system of sewage disposal and fire protection.

Our people hope that following the precedents established in the case of the Pacific railroads, Cuba and the Philippines, and the national expositions through national donations, bond guarantees, loans, tariff reductions, etc., Congress may exercise its powers in some large and immediately effective way for the rehabilitation of a national port so exceptionally stricken, and we earnestly

urge your favorable consideration of these matters, and invite your suggestion and recommendation to Congress.

GEO. C. PARDEE,

Governor of California.

E. E. SCHMITZ,

Mayor of San Francisco.

W. F. HERRIN,

Chairman Finance Committee
of the Committee of Forty
(on Reconstruction).

(IV.)

En route to WASHINGTON, D. C.,
June 9, 1906.

JAMES D. PHELAN, Esq.,

Chairman Finance Committee
Of Relief and Red Cross Funds,
San Francisco, Cal.

Sir.—In view of the conclusions reached at the mayor's office and residence on Tuesday and Wednesday of this week and embodied in the proposed telegram to the president, and in view of the resulting probability that the National Red Cross will become more rather than less responsible for the work of relief and rehabilitation after July 1, I wish to supplement my letter of June 4 by a brief statement concerning one subject to which I referred in our discussion at the mayor's residence.

It appears to me that it would neither be wise, in the interests of real rehabilitation, nor in accordance with the wishes of donors to hold for any great length of time the principal sum which has been subscribed for the relief of San Francisco, whether such sums are now in the hands of the Finance Committee, or are being held to be transferred later. A prompt and generous disbursement of the larger part of the total amount available would in my judgment do more not only to solve our immediate relief problem, but to promote the genuine rehabilitation of the community, than anything else which could be done. Much of the information on which such a distribution can properly be based is already in our possession as a result of the registration already made. I have already requested Mr. Bicknell to put forth every effort to perfect this registration before June 30 so that it will show fully the facts in regard to those who are living in camps or are receiving relief in any form. As soon as practicable after July 1, I would secure through the churches and otherwise similarly full information in regard to families which should be aided, although they have not applied for clothing or food. After carefully classifying this information I would decide what grants can safely be made to each of the several classes into which the entire number might be divided and would make such grants at once. The National Red Cross can supply the

mechanism for this complete canvass, but would seek the co-operation of Catholic, Jewish and Protestant charitable agencies, and possibly, if it is thought wise, the co-operation also of fraternal and labor bodies, reserving to itself, however, if this plan be decided upon, complete responsibility for the necessary inquiries in verification of the claimants' statements and for payment of the grants from the appropriations made for this purpose by the finance committee.

This is virtually the plan which I had in mind in my recommendations regarding special relief on May 4, and the relatively small experimental advances thus far made, have been in accordance with this idea. The time will have come, however, by June 30, when we may wisely decide how much in all should be used in this way, and when we may properly give complete publicity to our

plans, so that there may be no injustice or favoritism resulting from ignorance of them by any who are entitled to share in the distribution.

In harmony with the general views expressed above, I have to-day telegraphed Gen. Greely, recommending that only so much flour be sold as is essential for storage reasons and that the balance be held for relief distribution. If congress acts favorably upon the suggestion of a loan for the erection of houses, etc., nearly all of our relief funds can be disbursed in the form of grants of money. If not, I would reserve such part of same as may be decided upon to invest in dwellings and in other similar ways.

Respectfully yours,

EDWARD T. DEVINE.

Going the Juvenile Court One Better

Graham Romeyn Taylor

A movement is under way to limit as far as possible the work of the juvenile court. The very people who are most interested in the success of the juvenile court are trying to see if they can reduce the need for it. They want to see the juvenile courts multiplied throughout the country and the world; and they desire just as ardently to make as small as possible the work that they have to do. They wish to have a juvenile court in every city to take care of the cases of children who have gone so far wrong or become so dependent that nothing else can be done with them. But they believe in so influencing conditions that children will grow up without having to pass through the door of the juvenile or any other court. As Judge Lindsey, of Denver, put it, "If the juvenile court is designed to keep children out of prisons and jails, we ought to have something to keep them out of the juvenile court."

To discuss just what this should be, a meeting was held in Chicago on Saturday, June 9. It was first proposed by Judge Lindsey, who wrote on May 1 an open letter "regarding the work of the Juvenile Improvement Association, and suggestions for a national organization." A conference was called at Philadelphia in connection with the National Conference of Charities and Correction, to consider Judge Lindsey's suggestion; and as an outgrowth of this, last week's Chicago

meeting was called by its chairman, Judge Mack.

When Judge Mack had called the meeting to order and called Judge Lindsey to the chair, the latter outlined at length his opinions as stated in his letter. He called attention to the playgrounds, social settlements, boys' clubs and many other agencies already at work to afford better environment and opportunity for the children—to keep them out of the juvenile court. He spoke of what can be done with many existing means such as the public schools. He showed that in cities where settlements, playgrounds, and similar lines of work are few, other organizations are springing up such as the Juvenile Improvement Association of Denver. And in cities where social activities have become established, he saw added usefulness from an organization like the Juvenile Improvement Association in bringing about co-operation. Cincinnati, Indianapolis, Buffalo, Chicago, and other places were instanced. The Denver association does more than maintain in its own building, its boys' clubs and other activities; it stimulates the demand for more playgrounds and for industrial education in the schools, encourages the formation of purity leagues, and gets other associations, private individuals and the municipality to take up larger forms of social service in behalf of the children.

A national organization, or federation of these various local organizations, involves in his estimation the following advantages:

That a widespread educational propaganda could be undertaken by paid traveling secretaries and a bureau which would answer the inquiries of "what to do" which are flooding the mail of every one now at work in the juvenile courts.

That if a single national name could be adopted it would stand for something in every city throughout the country, as the Young Men's Christian Association now does in another sphere, so that everyone would know precisely what was meant by a reference to the organization in any city.

That effective backing could be given by a national organization to get better legislation affecting children.

That it could prevent dissipation of effort and money by securing co-operation of all at work in each community.

Though all were united in favor of co-operation, there was some difference of opinion in the discussion which followed on the advisability of forming at once a national organization. Some felt that it was best to go slow before adding to the already large number of organizations, and emphasized the advisability of making widest use of the machinery at hand. Many did not wish to adopt a national name which should be taken by all local organizations, for they declared that some of the latter had become known and had acquired influence in their respective communities under names of years' standing. Whatever organization might be formed, it was clear to all that it must be flexible enough to admit of varying methods to suit local conditions. Some hoped that it would not be known merely as an adjunct of the juvenile court, since its scope would be larger and its purposes reach back further. It was pointed out by Miss Julia Lathrop, of Hull House, however, that national organizations seemed to be the accepted way of doing things in this day. She instanced the National Child Labor Committee, and the National Tuberculosis Association. For the purposes of propaganda, especially, it was advantageous to have some sort of a national central bureau. The conditions existing in exaggerated form in large

cities are in their inception at least in smaller places, and educational propaganda in the smaller cities throughout the country is an important thing.

One fact seemed plainly evident. A speaker mentioned the number of cities which claim the beginning of the juvenile court movement,—showing it to be an outgrowth of common conditions. Similarly, it may be affirmed that the coming together of so many people from such widely scattered localities, all interested in the one purpose of going back of the juvenile court to deal with the children themselves and the conditions which affect child life instead of with the wrong things which the child does, indicates so great a prevalence of united feeling and thought as to lay firm and deep the basis for an organization devoted to the extension of the common idea and aim.

A resolution was adopted, offered by Edward W. Frost of Milwaukee, "that an international organization for the promotion of work for the protection and betterment of children be formed, and that a committee be appointed by the chairman of this meeting to prepare a form of organization and a statement of the objects of such organization, such committee to report at an adjourned meeting of this body to be called by the chairman of this meeting."

The dinner given in honor of Judge Lindsey at the Chicago Beach Hotel and presided over by Judge Mack was largely attended by representative Chicagoans as well as the out of town guests. Word came from Australia concerning the beginning of the juvenile court and its very successful work. Miss Alice Henry, of Victoria, who has taken great interest in all work for children although not officially connected with it, laid stress upon the informality of the hearings, which are held in the office of the clerk of the court. No one is admitted except the parties interested and the representatives of the press. The child does not have to sit through the cases preceding his own, and when his own is called does not have the humiliation of confronting a courtroom full of people. She brought applause for the statement that of 6,000 children who have

gone through the juvenile courts of Victoria, but 300 are in institutions.

Judge Tuthill, who first presided over the Chicago juvenile court, told how firmly he believed in the movement, though not now officially connected with it. He enlarged upon the need for facilities such as a special building for the juvenile court, detention homes, and farm schools where delinquent boys could be sent. Interesting accounts of the experience in their respective localities were told by Judge Caldwell, of the Cincinnati juvenile court, Judge Murphy of the Buffalo juvenile court, and Miss Whitcomb, who is interested in the Boys' Busy Life Club in Milwaukee.

Judge DeLacey, who will preside over the Washington, D. C., juvenile court about to be established, also spoke.

Miss Jane Addams expressed the hope that when next the organization met in Chicago, the Chicago juvenile court would have its building for the court, which should also house the issuing office for granting work certificates to children of working age, and which should also have telephone connection with all the public schools to facilitate the co-

operation of the compulsory education department and the probation work of the court in looking after truants. Miss Addams' main point, however, had to do with the policeman, and her plea for socializing his work was most suggestive and convincing. She contended that the policeman knows the people of his neighborhood, and the traits and associations of the children, better than almost any one else. Institutes should be provided for the training of policemen just as much as for school teachers. It is their prerogative and duty to know the best way of dealing with the problems they meet continually and especially among juvenile delinquents. Their interest would be aroused and they would find better ways than clubbing and suppression. Study of this matter will bring results. In New York it has been found that an Italian neighborhood with a reputation for turbulence became quiet and peaceable as soon as an Italian policeman was introduced. He understood the people with whom he was called upon to deal. We can thus utilize our policemen in a social way much more than we realize.

Employment Exchange.

Address all communications to Miss Helen M. Kelsey, Editor Employment Exchange Department of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, Room 535, 156 Fifth Avenue. Kindly enclose postage if a reply is desired.

WANTED—Superintendent for an institution for children in the vicinity of New York.

WANTED—Men of experience in settlement work to take positions now open at salaries ranging from \$1,500-\$2,000.

WANTED—Woman desirous of doing settlement work, who will be willing to take charge of the house in return for living expenses.

WANTED—Teacher of experience to take position in a reformatory for girls in a small city.

WANTED—Resident in training in settlement in small Eastern city. Living expenses only remuneration.

WANTED—Matron for public institution located in the country in Pennsylvania. Experience and ability to maintain discipline required.

WANTED—Man interested and experienced in social work, to take position in small town in the West, which combines settlement work and supervision of grammar school.

WANTED—Correspondence with teachers interested in positions in institutions for the Fall; state normal schools or colleges attended, church connections, age, etc. Opportunities only for those who can grant personal interviews in New York in the immediate future.

WANTED—Young college man with some knowledge of probation work to take charge of work in connection with a settlement.

WANTED—A Jewish young man to act as assistant superintendent for an educational society; state qualifications both as to education and experience.

A MAN of training and experienced in gymnasium work wishes position for summer in camp or playground.

WOMAN with training in law and experienced in investigating wishes position of responsibility.

YOUNG WOMAN who has done volunteer work in settlement, wishes paid position for next winter.

YOUNG man, student in a Southern college, wishes position for the summer, in camp for boys or other outdoor work. Is musical and an expert with the camera.

YOUNG woman trained in Domestic Science wishes position as managing housekeeper.

WOMAN of experience in C. O. S. work, a trained investigator, wishes position of an executive nature in the vicinity of New York City.

YOUNG man, successful in work with boys, wishes position in New York City. Evenings already occupied.

THE Corlears District Committee requests a baby carriage for a little child a year old, who is a cripple and in need of being outdoors as much as possible. The mother is too ill and weak to carry him. Carriage may be sent to 127 Chrystie Street, New York.

CHARITIES

AND The Commons

A WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PHILANTHROPY AND SOCIAL ADVANCE

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The Traveling Tuberculosis Exhibitions. The traveling tuberculosis exhibition, of which Gaylord S. White writes on another page, is the latest and one of the most interesting developments in the organized campaign for the prevention of tuberculosis.

Shortly after the American Tuberculosis Exhibition held in this city in December last when the National Association and The Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of the Charity Organization Society gathered together the tuberculosis exhibits which have since gone to seven cities and been seen by 216,000 persons, the plan was developed of holding in New York city a series of exhibitions similar to these others, though somewhat smaller, and covering more carefully the field in this city.

Mr. White discusses one of the eight exhibitions which have been held in different settlements, church houses, at Columbia University and at one of the Carnegie Branch Libraries, at each of which places the interest of the neighborhood in the local exhibition has been of such an encouraging nature as to make the Department of Health, the New York

Tuberculosis Committee and the neighborhood houses, feel that this method of teaching the story of tuberculosis is of very great value to the whole community.

It is a better scheme than the old, as the laboratory is better than the book. Yet it does not do away with the former methods of educating through lectures and leaflets. These it uses to the fullest extent, but it adds to the printed page and the spoken word, the picture, the photograph, the model. It presents to a group of neighborhood workers an opportunity for definite effort along fixed lines for a certain period. For the time during which each exhibition is being prepared and while it is being held it makes use of the enthusiasm of earnest workers who before the work was presented to them in this concrete manner could give but sparing attention to this city-wide problem. Each exhibition thus leaves in its wake a group of enlightened and enthusiastic converts from whom permanent help can be expected for the campaign in the future, each neighborhood in turn receives a definite impression and tuberculosis and its prevention becomes a matter of common interest which friends and neighbors may talk about together.

At least a good beginning has been made this year, as may be seen from the fact that in connection with these exhibitions there have been distributed 458,000 leaflets and circulars, while of regular lectures, in addition to the impromptu talks which have been given in great number, there have been over 130. A total attendance of 79,956 at the seven exhibitions now completed bodes well for

the new and bigger fight that some day must be fought in this country by a no longer hopelessly ignorant and indifferent public.

For another year it remains to still further perfect the plan of the traveling tuberculosis exhibition. We can think of no more effective and promising method of educating the public to the point where it will actually prevent this preventable disease, than to place this exhibition in turn and for short terms in the public school buildings, where the children of the tenements may all have the chance to become familiar with the exhibits and the story that they tell. For after all the chief hope for the actual prevention of tuberculosis in the next generation lies in the children of this one. It is there that the seed falls upon good soil which will bear fruit abundantly, while with the parents with fixed habits and prejudices and the hopelessness born of despair, the attempts for the prevention of tuberculosis through education are choked at the very sowing of the seed because of long fixed habits, deep rooted prejudices and the hopelessness born of despair.

**The Milwaukee
Exhibition.**

The Traveling Tuberculosis Exhibit at Milwaukee May 7 to 19, registered an attendance of fifty-four thousand persons. From utter indifference the city has been aroused to the keenest interest and is already instituting a statewide campaign with local exhibits. A large first floor store on a busy downtown street, fifteen set lectures with thirty half-hour talks with stereopticon and many demonstrations given in the same room with the exhibit; the pulling together of business and civic organizations, fraternal bodies, churches, schools, city departments, labor bodies, the press, etc., were factors in making the exhibit a great success. A valuable feature was the bovine exhibit of condemned meat, etc., by the state veterinarian and the United States meat inspection bureau. Lectures were given in English, German, Polish and Italian. Milwaukee was stirred as it has never been stirred on a health question.

Separate pavilions for tubercular patients at the county hospital and insane asylums, enforcement of the anti-spitting ordinance, a new building code, a new pure food law, city meat inspection, a largely increased reporting by physicians of tubercular cases, a requirement that all herds furnishing milk to the city be certified as having passed the tuberculin test before the licenses for milkmen are reissued June 1, a semi-charitable sanatorium for private treatment, and the voluntary organization of all sanitary police to promote efficiency,—these are a few results of the campaign already in sight.

The cost of the exhibit was defrayed by the City Council.

**Industrial
Condition of
New York
Negroes.**

As result of a series of meetings which have been held quietly at different times during the past two months, the Committee for the Improvement of the Industrial Condition of the Negro in New York has been organized. The membership consists of an exceptional group of leaders among the colored people of Manhattan and Brooklyn, and a number of men and women, not of the race, whose interests hitherto have for the most part had to do with the work for the Negro in the South. These first meetings have carried conviction that here at home conditions are piling up which must be met squarely and at once.

William Jay Schieffelin, president of the Armstrong Association, is chairman of the committee; George McAneny, treasurer; S. R. Scottron and Seth T. Stewart, vice-chairmen; William L. Bulkley, principal of Public School No. 80, secretary, and Miss Mary White Ovington, fellow of the research committee of Greenwich House, assistant secretary. So far as is known, the committee is unique as a compact working body in which representatives of progressive elements among both white and colored populations meet on an equal footing. The common ground lies in the two words "economic opportunity." It is the purpose of the new organization to get at the facts of industrial conditions as they affect Negro city dwellers, and to

take such steps as will definitely improve these conditions. A square deal in the matter of getting a livelihood is held to be fundamental.

The development of the committee has its interesting features. At one time the late William H. Baldwin called a meeting with some such purposes in view, but because of his prolonged illness and death nothing came of it. The present movement had its inception in the social work carried on by Dr. Bulkley among the members of his race as principal of Public School No. 80 on West Forty-first street.

As a first step, industrial classes were started, a census of colored business enterprises begun, and a meeting of physicians, ministers, lawyers, editors, and other leaders called to consider what was to be done. At this meeting the situation was presented by Dr. Bulkley and by Miss Ovington, who for two years has been studying the community life of the 70,000 Negro people of Greater New York and could tell that what was true of the one neighborhood and a few callings, was much of it true of the entire city and of most all callings. In the meanwhile the Committee on Social Research of the Charity Organization Society had gotten out blanks for an investigation of the opportunities for colored craftsmen in New York and the Armstrong Association had decided to make a study of the local situation. A joining of forces resulted in the organization of an independent body, with working sub-committees on trade schools, craftsmen, tradesmen, etc. The response which leaders of the colored people who are interested in the plan, have met with in putting it before their people, would seem to indicate that the organization of the committee may be the beginning of a wide-spread co-operative movement among the Negroes of New York.

The Chicago
Society of
Social Hygiene.

The awakening of medical men during the last decade to the need for determined and united action to deal with the problem of venereal diseases is rapidly extending among the lay public. As pointed out in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS for

February 24, this movement shows the influence of the experience in the great popular campaign against tuberculosis.

The lead was taken by the society in Berlin, now comprising five thousand members, whose aim is to restrict the spread of venereal diseases by rousing the public to the fact that the chief sufferers from such diseases are innocent women and children. Following the organization of a similar body in Paris, as well as the New York Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, the physicians of Chicago have launched the Chicago Society of Social Hygiene and are welcoming the co-operation of all in that city, social workers and other laymen as well as the members of the medical profession.

The Chicago Medical Society, with a membership of eighteen hundred physicians, instructed a committee composed of Drs. Belfield, Dudley, Favill, Baum and Webster, to consider the advisability of forming such an association. As an earnest of the integrity of the movement may be cited the names of such representative men as the following:

Drs. Frank Billings, F. Henrotin, J. N. Hyde, E. C. Dudley, J. B. Murphy, H. B. Favill, W. L. Baum, J. C. Webster, John M. Dodson, W. T. Belfield, Gilbert Fitzpatrick, L. Blake Baldwin, Frank Johnson, William A. Pusey, C. S. Bacon, William E. Quine, Heman Spalding, B. W. Sippy, Charles B. Small and Charles Adams; Bishop C. P. Anderson, Dr. Emil G. Hirsch, Bishop Samuel Fallows, Professor Charles R. Henderson Rev. R. A. White, Rev. John Balcom Shaw, Judge Julian W. Mack, of the Juvenile Court, Thomas C. MacMillan, Walter M. Wood, head of the Y. M. C. A. educational work, T. P. Hurley, Raymond Robins, George E. Hooker, secretary of the City Club, Hastings H. Hart, of the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society, J. W. Gossard, W. W. Hallam, Leopold Deittelbaum, O. J. Milliken, of the Jewish Training School, H. D. Penfield, William Bodeman, Professor Graham Taylor, Professor William Bishop Owen, Ernest P. Bicknell, of the Chicago Bureau of Charities, Charles H. Avery, and Henry W. Thurston, chief probation officer of the Chicago juvenile court.

The National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis

At the annual meeting of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, held in Washington in May, a number of papers of more than ordinary educational value were presented before the sociological section.

Particularly timely was the address of the chairman, William H. Baldwin of Washington, on the *Influence of Sanatoria on the Value of Surrounding Property*. Mr. Baldwin had through correspondence examined economic conditions in the neighborhoods of fifty-nine of the largest sanatoriums in the United States and reported the result of his inquiry. He showed that in many instances the sentiment seems to have no effect whatever upon the value of adjacent property but in more than half the cases property values had increased. In a few instances it was shown that the establishment of the institution had checked building in its vicinity.

After a general discussion of the conditions, the conclusion was drawn that any unfavorable effect is due to prejudice and that in most cases a sanatorium in any district can be so located as to be helpful rather than harmful to adjacent property. In the discussion which followed, Homer Folks described experiences in the establishment of tuberculosis sanatoriums in New York and agreed with the chairman that the objection on the part of the neighboring land owners is largely a matter of prejudice. He held, however, that so long as the prejudice exists it must be met and that judgment should be used by those interested in locating new institutions in order to avoid so far as possible exciting opposition. He held that it is usually needless to arouse the prejudice and that when aroused it is more difficult to overcome from the fact that it is usually unreasonable. Dr. J. P. C. Foster of New Haven and Mr. H. Wirt Steele of Baltimore spoke briefly of the experience in their cities.

On Thursday morning, May 17, Samuel Hopkins Adams of New York read

a paper on *Tuberculosis Nostrums* which precipitated an active and interesting discussion. Mr. Adams, whose work in fighting the patent medicine evil in the pages of *Collier's Weekly* is well known, described very graphically the results of his inquiries concerning the sale of proprietary remedies for tuberculosis. The discussion of Mr. Adams's paper was opened by Dr. Frank Billings of Chicago, who emphasized the harm arising from the use of the so-called ethical preparations—as distinguished from nostrums. Arguing from the medical point of view so far as all drugs for the specific cure of tuberculosis are concerned, they do more harm than good. Dr. Billings urged that it is the attitude of the physician to discourage the use of specifics even where the manufacturers address themselves to the medical profession rather than to the laity. He called attention to the admirable results that have been brought about through such publications as *Collier's* and others which have been engaged in the campaign against proprietary remedies.

Dr. Billings was followed by Dr. J. W. Irwin of Philadelphia, who told of his inquiries with regard to the sale of specific drugs to tuberculous patients in Philadelphia. He urged that in fighting the evil the same methods used by the nostrum venders should be employed by those of us who are attempting to counteract the effects.

The racial distribution of tuberculosis was brought up in two papers, one by James R. Walker of South Dakota, who spoke on *Tuberculosis Among the Indians*, and the other by Dr. Thomas Jesse Jones, of Hampton, Va., whose subject was *Tuberculosis Among the Negroes*.

Dr. Walker, who is the agency physician at Pine Ridge, gave an interesting account of his experience with tuberculosis among the Sioux Indians. The most striking point in his paper was his statement that in five years when he was enabled by departmental appropriations to make systematic efforts toward con-

trolling the disease by keeping the tuberculosis patients under observation and giving them constant attention and instruction, the morbidity was lowered from 148.7 to 105.4 per thousand and the annual mortality from 24.88 to 13.45 per thousand. At the end of that time he was deprived by lack of funds of the opportunity of giving the problem his personal supervision and the disease has increased again during the past five years to 120.64 per thousand. Dr. Walker argued that it would be perfectly practicable to suppress tuberculosis among the Indians on the Pine Ridge Reservation by the establishment of a sanitary camp and expressed the hope that provision would be made by the department for carrying out the plan.

In discussing Dr. Walker's paper Dr. Martin of Montana described his experience among the Black Feet Indians and took a much more gloomy view of the situation. He emphasized the necessity of dealing with the disease among the Indians by reason of the danger which its presence creates to the surrounding whites. He was of the opinion, however, that the Indian is doomed to speedy disappearance and that tuberculosis under present conditions cannot be prevented and will be the chief factor in the extinction of the race.

Dr. Jones in his paper on *Tuberculosis Among the Negroes* called attention to the appalling ravages of the disease in that race, quoting such statistics as were available from various districts of the southern states and comparing them with the figures among the whites for the same localities. Among those who participated in the discussion were Dr. Robert Wilson of Charleston, Dr. Grandy of Norfolk, Dr. Knopf of New York, Dr. Dunning S. Wilson of Louisville, and Dr. Minor of Asheville. The consensus of opinion seemed to be that the available statistics with regard to the disease among the negroes are thoroughly untrustworthy and that most careful investigations are necessary before we shall have accurate knowledge of the existing conditions. The speakers for the most part also emphasized the hopeless character of the infection in the negro race.

Perhaps the most important paper of the meeting was by Paul Kennaday of New York, on *Effective Methods of Educating the Public*. Mr. Kennaday's conclusions were based upon the experience of the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of the Charity Organization Society of New York and in the light of the practical tests made and the various means that have thus far been employed, his remarks carried particular weight. It is hoped that the paper will soon be available for distribution to those centers where systematic work is being planned.

Among the points discussed were the best means of reaching the different classes in any community whose attention is most desired. The use of lanterns for the general public, addresses to teachers, trades unions, and other groups were discussed in detail. The paper also went into the question of the preparation of suitable printed matter for distribution and gave many practical hints as to what to do and what to avoid. The travelling exhibition used by the New York committee in various quarters of the city was also described in detail. Mr. Kennaday closed by discussing means for encouraging the co-operation of boards of health, physicians, nurses, charitable organizations, hospital and dispensary authorities and other agencies in a position to afford efficient aid.

As might be expected, an active discussion followed this paper. Surgeon-General Wyman told of the executive order issued by President Roosevelt in response to the resolution passed by the National Association at its meeting a year ago, by which the attention of the heads of all executive departments is called to the prevalence of tuberculosis in the buildings under their charge and directions given to take such steps as may be feasible to control the disease.

Dr. John H. Lowman, of Cleveland, urged paying more attention to the national societies—Slav, Jew, Russian, Italian, etc., which exist in this country. He had found from experience that much could be accomplished by gaining their co-operation.

E. D. Solenberger of Minneapolis, described the educational campaign in that

city, and Alexander M. Wilson did the same for Boston.

Much interest was aroused by the description of Dr. Oscar H. Rogers of an educational method employed in Yonkers, N. Y. There, during the past year, instruction has been carried on by means of a stereopticon used in an open square in the center of the city. A large collection of slides has been prepared containing short and pithy statements which are thrown on the side of a building and are read by the thousands who congregate at that point. It was evident from the comments made that this plan will be tried in many other places during the coming year. Other

speakers emphasized the necessity of the co-operation of the press and agreed that the newspapers of the country are for the most part thoroughly cordial in lending their columns to the movement.

Dr. Arnold C. Klebs of Chicago, presented a paper on *Industrial Sickness Relief Associations* in which he described the conditions in Germany and urged the desirability of such insurance for working men. In discussing Dr. Kleb's paper Frederick Hoffman disagreed with the conclusion drawn as to the propriety of this form of relief and argued further that it was not a practicable scheme for adoption in other countries.

With the Traveling Tuberculosis Exhibition

Gaylord S. White

Union Settlement, New York

"That must be awful hard for the pig." The speaker was a girl about twelve years of age. With school books tucked under her arm, she was turning the leaves of a cabinet of photographs depicting tenement house conditions in New York. She had paused to study the picture of a filthy cellar of a tenement house which had been found to be the home of a pig and her sympathies, if possibly misplaced, had nevertheless been aroused. The picture which evoked these sentiments was a portion of the traveling exhibition of the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of the Charity Organization Society of New York, which was tarrying for a fortnight under the roof of the Union Settlement.

In organizing the Traveling Tuberculosis Exhibition the Charity Organization Society has undertaken a fresh line of attack in the warfare against the great white plague. For this purpose such features of the exhibition held last December in the American Museum of Natural History, as related especially to New York and vicinity were duplicated as far as necessary and formed into a small but comprehensive exhibition, quickly handled and well calculated to make a vivid impression. This exhibition is now travelling about the city by easy stages, finding lodgement for a fortnight

at a time in settlements, in public halls, in churches—in any suitable place to which the people are likely to resort. Beginning shortly after January 1, the exhibition has already been on view in several settlements representing widely separated sections of the East Side, and it has an itinerary mapped out which will take it to other tenement house neighborhoods.

There seems to be no reason why this work may not be extended almost indefinitely, or at least to such sections of the country as have special need for education in the methods of fighting tuberculosis. In cities and towns which are large manufacturing centers, a traveling tuberculosis exhibit would be of great social service and where there was no suitable public hall to accommodate the exhibition there would be a fine opportunity for some church to serve the community by giving up a room for the purpose.

In view of the importance of the subject and the probability of the enlargement of its field, some account of the experiences of one settlement with the exhibition may be of interest. Some time before the exhibition was opened an invitation was sent out to persons of influence in the neighborhood, public school officials and teachers, clergymen,



"Tuberculosis is Curable."—Part of the Dispensary and Hospital Exhibits.

physicians and others to attend a meeting to consider plans for bringing the exhibition to the notice of the neighborhood, and for making it most effective for good. A fairly representative gathering resulted from the invitation and the co-operation of many neighborhood interests was thus secured. Suggestions were made as to the character and methods of advertising which were useful in view of the different races and nationalities to be reached. The help of the local physicians, in most cases, was cordially tendered and it was possible to arrange a schedule whereby for nearly every afternoon and evening of the two weeks of the exhibition, a doctor was in attendance to answer questions, explain the exhibition and often to give informal lectures.

Advertising was done by means of posters and handbills, the latter being printed in large numbers in different languages and widely distributed. The storekeepers of the neighborhood were usually ready to display posters in their windows, but there was great reluctance on the part of most of the druggists to advertise the exhibition. Whether there was any connection between their attitude and the emphatic pronouncement of the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis against proprietary medicines, which claim to cure consumption, is a matter for conjecture.

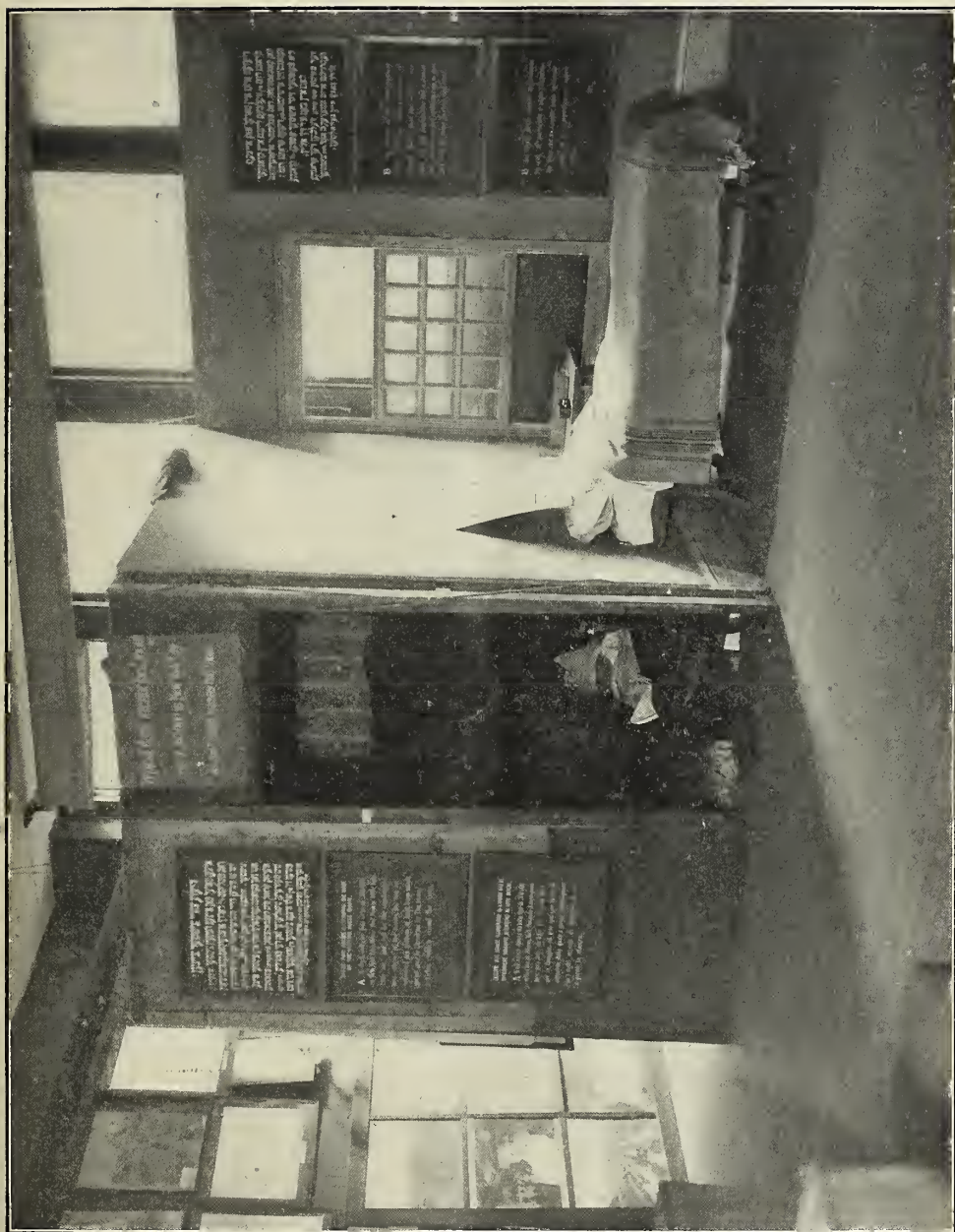
The public school principals and teachers gave great assistance by calling the exhibition to the attention of their pupils and by taking large numbers of circulars for distribution. The Board of Health nurse assigned to the local school district carried circulars on her rounds and placed them where they might do good, and the district nurses of the Nurses Settlement gave similar aid.

The attendance was accurately registered and amounted to 4,318. Of this number a considerable proportion were children of from twelve to fourteen years of age. Very young children came to the door in great numbers simply out of curiosity but they were generally excluded, as the exhibition could mean little to them. The older children, however, were welcomed as it was felt that

to stimulate in them a sense of the importance of the prevention and cure of tuberculosis and to give them simple and accurate information regarding the disease, the means by which it is communicated and the means by which it is being fought to-day, was well worth while. Indeed, the hope of doing much to influence the tenement house mothers to a degree that will affect the situation, is small as compared with the hope of educating the children. If the children can be thoroughly convinced of the prime importance of cleanliness, fresh air and sunshine and persuaded at least to aim for high standards in these respects, even in the face of the difficulties that tenement house life presents, a tremendous advantage will have been gained. And it was encouraging to note the eagerness, the intelligence, the ability to grasp the salient facts in the situation, that children of twelve and fourteen years of age displayed. The case of the pig in the cellar already referred to, was hardly a case in point; a better illustration may be found in the vigorous way in which one little girl was overheard lecturing another on the approved methods of sweeping and dusting, as illustrated by the exhibition. Her auditor was somewhat warmly defending the old method of the feather duster on the ground that "My mama always dusts that way; she don't never use a cloth duster"—but she was silenced by the withering reply, "Well, if she don't, she oughter."

So great is felt to be the opportunity of educating the children in approved methods of fighting tuberculosis, that since the exhibition has moved on, the Department of Health has assigned physicians of its staff to meet classes of the older school children daily at the exhibition, while it is in their neighborhood, and instruct them as to its meaning. The success of the plan depends of course on the co-operation of the public school authorities. The school end of it is under the supervision of the district superintendents.

The well-known models of the tenement house committee of the Charity Organization Society showing a lower



“Tuberculosis is Preventable.”—The full size model of a typical dirty, dark, interior, bedroom, and the clean, airy, front room of same apartment into which patient has been moved.

East Side block as it actually existed in 1900; another block as it would appear if built up solidly with the dumb bell variety of tenements, and still another block covered with tenements built under the tenement house act of 1901, attracted much attention and the frequent comments of the children upon the evils of the deadly air shafts and the dark interior rooms indicated that the efforts to cultivate public opinion regarding these important matters are bearing fruit among the coming generation of citizens.

Of the adults who attended the exhibition many came as was to be expected, because of special interest. In some cases a member of the family was ill with the disease, and advice was sought regarding treatment. Others were concerned about themselves or about relatives and wished to know what to do to secure a competent examination and diagnosis. A few persons came long distances from other boroughs, having seen notices of the exhibition in the press, and being desirous of authoritative information for the benefit of some sufferer.

The features of the exhibition which proved most attractive were the models and the pathological specimens. One small boy possessed of altruistic motives and more of this world's goods than most of the visitors, seeing the dolls and models of tents and school rooms and abandoned horse cars, expressed regret that he did not know about the show, "For," he said, "I should have been glad to have brought some of my toys."

The sample of New York's 360,000 interior dark rooms, just large enough to hold the bed, bureau and wash stand, all in a state of becoming disorder and dirt, realistic enough, one would have thought to satisfy the most exacting, came in for a large share of attention and received varying comment. Two young girls after looking at the room for a time, inquired seriously, "What's the matter with it?" Most of the visitors conceded that the room was bad enough, although not as bad as many of the type it represented. It is in such a room as this, according to the announcement of a large placard in several languages, that the district nurse frequently discovers a tuberculous patient

and attention is then called to the adjoining exhibit which is supposed to represent the parlor of the same flat to which the patient has been removed. Here by the open window is a neat cot; a table with a sanitary sputum cup stands next it and everything suggests proper hygienic care.

The plaster model of Sea Breeze, the seaside home and hospital of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, where much is being done for the treatment of tuberculosis of the bones and to which thousands of tenement house children are sent each summer for a day's outing, inspired many memories of happy days. Boys and girls who had spent a day at Sea Breeze came upon the model with the delight of an unexpected discovery. It was a pleasure to hear them exchange reminiscences. "Say, I was in them scups," one would say pointing to the miniature row of swings; while another would locate a particular spot in the great pavilion, saying, "There's where I had me dinner last summer." The models of tents and shacks were objects of great interest, and the dolls exhibited by one of the clinics to illustrate the treatment of surgical tuberculosis by means of plaster jackets and mechanical appliances caught the eyes of the little girls.

Next to the models the pathological exhibits attracted the most attention and when properly explained they made perhaps the deepest impression. One must fear that a good deal of misinformation was probably purveyed by amateur lecturers. There were always some persons present who were ready to dispense knowledge, and strict adherence to the truth was not always the strong point of the dispenser. For instance, more than one fell into the pitfall unintentionally provided by the arrangement of the pathological exhibit. Among the bottles containing the lungs was a bottle filled with cotton which had been exposed in the fresh air flue of a city building. The blackness of the exposed portion of the cotton in contrast to the whiteness of the unexposed part, told a vivid tale of the quality of the air we city folks breathe. But the amateur lecturer, without stopping to read the sign of explan-

ation and casting his eye over the line of lungs, would sometimes pick out this bottle as a horrible example and point to it as a specimen of the frightful pass to which a lung is brought by tuberculosis.

The interest of the public always centered in the informal talks that were given in the exhibition room, or the more formal lectures that took place in the adjoining lecture hall. The people came—the most of them—seeking information. They desired to *know* about this disease that makes such fearful ravages. There were lectures in Italian and in Yiddish for those who had not acquired the language of the country of their adoption; and a special talk was given one afternoon to the teachers of a neighboring public school. There were frequent inquiries for the lectures. A child would come and say, "My mama wants to know when there's goin' to be a lecture;" and the same question was repeated many times in different form. Everybody likes to look at pictures and the stereopticon was often used as a valuable adjunct to the lecture.

Upon the whole, one must feel that the exhibition was of great educational value. There can be no question that upon many persons the importance of cleanliness, of fresh air, of good nourishment, of proper habits of life, was deeply impressed. Great emphasis was laid by all speakers upon the evil of the spitting habit and upon the fact that intemperance prepares the way for tuberculosis in multitudes of cases and makes recovery extremely uncertain. One enthusiastic foreigner gave a talk in German and in speaking of the habit of spitting, insisted that cuspidors should be

provided in all public places for those who must spit; he drew a picture of the reformed city with cuspidors in the streets, the trolley cars, the railway stations, the ferryboats, the public halls; the churches, and then having mentioned all the places of public resort of which he could think, with a sweep of the hand to include all possible places, he put the finishing touch to this attractive picture by explaining, "Ueberall,—spittoons."

From the point of view of the settlement, candor compels the statement that the exhibition was in some respects a nuisance. But difficult as it was to readjust all the work after giving up the largest and best room in the house, no one who watched the progress of the exhibition, and marked the expressions of interest, and noted the intelligent attention that was given to the subject; and heard the questions that were asked, could feel that any temporary inconvenience could be permitted for a moment to weigh against the positive value that such an exhibition must contribute toward the social welfare.

There lingers in the mind the remark of one of our neighbors that must be typical of what many thought and that indicates the possibilities bound up in such a work of popular education. The speaker was a local storekeeper, a Russian Jew. He had seen his brother, who kept the store before him, fall a prey to consumption and become a needless victim of the disease, and after he had carefully studied the exhibition he said, "If we had only had this exhibition here two years ago my brother need not have died." And who can say but that he spoke the truth?

The Tuberculosis Exhibition

Ethan M. Gray, M. D.

The success of the Chicago Tuberculosis Exhibition marks an important epoch in the anti-tuberculosis campaign in Chicago, and vindicates the claim of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute to existence.

The exhibition was managed by the educational department of the institute,

of which Dr. A. C. Klebs is the head, and, through numerous lectures, slide-talks and demonstrations, imparted valuable information to thousands of earnest inquirers. Daily talks were given six days in the week during April, at which opportunity was given for discussion on the part of the audience. The evening

sessions were of a most interesting character, the speakers being men identified in large measure with the tuberculosis problem. Not only medical men, but labor leaders, social workers, sanitary students and public health officials addressed the "conferences."

The audiences were drawn from all classes, and the interest evinced by those among whom the white plague finds the most victims, encourages the leaders in the crusade to believe that the people are awakening to a realizing sense of the importance of this great subject.

The bulk of models, charts, maps, etc., have been seen in various cities in the east and have been mentioned in these columns. The exhibit contributed by Chicago proved especially interesting, of course, to the Chicago attendance which is estimated at between 30,000 and 35,000 for the four weeks. Pin-maps, carefully charted statistics relative to the situation in this city, photographs and pathological specimens, attracted much attention. The pin-maps were a most vivid means of portraying the terrible ravages of consumption in the congested districts of Chicago. The lodging-house areas, where the pins were so thick as to form a solid mass on the map, told their story of death. An enlarged map of the "Ghetto" district, drawn by Dr. Sachs, showed the state of affairs in that part of the city, inhabited by a large Jewish population, scarcely a building lot being shown which had not its death-indicating spot, while some had as many as three or four.

The pathological exhibit probably attracted more attention than any other one item; numerous specimens showed the process of destruction of tissue attacked by the tubercle bacillus.

Lungs in which cavities had formed, bones partially destroyed by bone tuberculosis, the microscopical demonstrations of the disease all brought home to the visitor the real meaning of the war now being waged against consumption. This department was in charge of Prof. Zeit of the Northwestern Medical School, from which institution attendants were supplied who instructively demonstrated the chief points of interest.

Not all of Chicago's exhibit was of this

melancholy nature; on one wall was shown a résumé of the work done by the Tuberculosis Committee of the Visiting Nurse Association, while on the opposite wall were displayed the plans of the proposed dispensary of the Tuberculosis Institute. This institution, when completed, will furnish a powerful weapon in the battle against consumption, not alone in furnishing means for the arrest or possible cure of the disease, but in the great problem of prevention, is it expected to be a factor which will prove to be of material value.

"IF PREVENTION PREVENTS, WHY NOT PREVENT?"

So read one of the placards in the assembly hall. The question is pertinent; and that question the Tuberculosis Institute will try to make the public ask itself. For, it must be conceded, many consumptives are beyond help by the time they come into the hand of those capable of treating them—especially those who have been struggling to earn a livelihood, despite the disease which is consuming them.

To such, treatment is of little avail; but what about the other members of the patient's family? They must be shielded if we are to keep this disease from claiming more victims in that home; the occupants of the house must be protected if we are to reduce the city's death rate; the patient's fellow-workers must be instructed how to keep themselves safe if we are to have hygienic factories—factories which will show a low trade mortality instead of a high one.

This is what the Tuberculosis Institute proposes to do. This is what it is trying to do. This exhibition was brought here for the purpose of interesting the people, it was thought to be an excellent means of rousing the public to the danger of this ever present disease and to the simple means of combating it.

The lessons constantly iterated and reiterated during the entire thirty days of the exhibition were:

First—Consumption is not a hereditary but an infectious disease.

Second—It is communicated only through the sputum.

Third—It is preventable—destroy the sputum and the means of infection are done away with.

These, when properly elaborated, cover the whole ground. If those who heard these principles enunciated by the exhibition speakers last month will remember them and communicate them to others, the Tuberculosis Exhibition will have served its purpose.

The conferences were addressed by:

Dr. H. B. Favill, Dr. Frank Billings, Dr.

S. A. Knopf, New York; Dr. Flick, of Philadelphia; Dr. R. H. Babcock, Miss Jane Adams, Dr. A. C. Klebs, Mr. George W. Perkins, President of the Cigarmakers' International Union; Prof. Charles R. Henderson, Dr. Charles L. Mix, Dr. E. W. Ryerson, Dr. Ethan A. Gray, Dr. Caroline Hedger, Miss Harriet Fulmer, Dr. W. A. Evans, Mr. E. G. Cooley, Dr. Frank Churchill, Hon. C. S. Deneen, Dr. C. J. Whalen, Dr. V. H. Podstata, Mr. A. Bisno, Dr. Alice Hamilton, Dr. Theodore B. Sachs, Mr. E. P. Bicknell, Mr. Kingsley, Dr. F. X. Walls, Mr. J. Mullenbach, Dr. George W. Webster, Dr. James A. Eagan, Dr. B. J. Cigrand.

Employment Exchange.

Address all communications to Miss Helen M. Kelsey, Editor Employment Exchange Department of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, Room 535, 156 Fifth Avenue. Kindly enclose postage if a reply is desired.

WANTED - Superintendent for an institution for children in the vicinity of New York.

WANTED—Men of experience in settlement work to take positions now open at salaries ranging from \$1,500-\$2,000.

WANTED—Woman desirous of doing settlement work, who will be willing to take charge of the house in return for living expenses.

WANTED—Resident in training in settlement in small Eastern city. Living expenses only remuneration.

YOUNG Jewess, graduate of School of Philanthropy, who has had practical experience in settlement management, wishes position in Middle West in settlement or probation work.

AMAN of training and experienced in gymnasium work wishes position for summer in camp or playground.

YOUNG WOMAN who has done volunteer work in settlement, wishes paid position for next winter.

YOUNG man, student in a Southern college, wishes position for the summer, in camp for boys or other outdoor work. Is musical and an expert with the camera.

YOUNG woman trained in Domestic Science wishes position as managing housekeeper.

FOR SALE

Six Acres of Land, with Buildings

SUITABLE FOR SMALL INSTITUTION

Five minutes from station on main railway line,
near

PLAINFIELD, NEW JERSEY

House of sixteen rooms, built by owner.

Fine grounds, garden, orchard, brook.

Over \$35,000 has been expended on the property.

Will sell for charitable purposes for \$15,000.

Address, ALBERT WINTER, 141 Broadway

The New York School of Philanthropy.

The enrolment for the school year 1906-7 has begun and there are a number of applications on file for scholarships.

Many of the students of the class of '96 went directly from the school to positions of more or less importance. There were several requests for graduates for positions which had to go unfilled.

The demand seems greatest for people to fill such positions as those of Charity Organization Society Secretary, Club Worker, and Financial Secretary. It seems reasonable to say that any bright young man or woman with the requisite natural qualifications, good academic preparation and one year's hard study and field work with the school, is certain of an opportunity for a career at very reasonable compensation.

For enrolment blanks, further particulars, etc., address the Director,

EDWARD T. DEVINE,

105 E. 22nd St.,

New York.

Personal interviews may be had, by appointment, during July with Mr. Carl Kelsey, Associate Director, at the above address.

Notes of the Week

A Home for Immigrant Girls.—The Immigrant Aid Committee of the Columbian Council of Jewish Women of Pittsburgh plans to establish a home where immigrant girls will be received on their arrival in the city. The council has appropriated \$300 to start the work.

The committee includes Mrs. Henry Finkelpearl, chairman; Mrs. M. A. Goodstone, vice-chairman; Mrs. W. H. Cohn, secretary; Mrs. Izaak Wildberg, Mrs. Nathaniel Spear, Mrs. H. B. Ivynson, Mrs. I. Gross, Mrs. Herman Mayer, Mrs. C. H. Weinhaus, Mrs. M. Spiro, Mrs. Henry Oppenheimer, Mrs. A. Bernstein, Miss Julia Schoenfeld, Mrs. Rachel Jackson, Mrs. Henry Kaufmann, Mrs. Max Blum, Mrs. J. A. Perley, Mrs. Isaac Kaufmann, Mrs. Henry Herzog and Mrs. Herman Cerf.

Houses Supplying Charitable Institutions

To secure a place in this Directory the name of a Supply House must be submitted by an Institution purchasing from it, and known to the publishers of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS. Published every Saturday.

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| <p>Awnings.
 JOHN T. VAUSE & SON,
 218 Bowery, New York.</p> <p>Booksellers and Stationers.
 SCRANTON, WETMORE & CO.,
 Rochester, N. Y.</p> <p>Carpets.
 WM. SLOANE & CO.,
 Broadway and Twentieth street, New York.</p> <p>China and Glass.
 JAMES M. SHAW & CO.,
 25 Duane street, New York.</p> <p>Clothing.
 NEAL & HYDE,
 Syracuse, N. Y.
 ROGERS, PEET & CO.,
 258, 842, 1260 Broadway, New York.</p> <p>Coffee, Tea and Spices.
 B. FISCHER & CO.,
 393 Greenwich street, New York.
 GILLIES COFFEE CO.,
 233 Washington street, New York.</p> <p>Disinfectants and Disinfecting Appliances.
 WEST DISINFECTING CO. (INC.),
 11 East Fifty-ninth street, New York.</p> <p>Dry Goods.
 ABRAHAM & STRAUS,
 420 Fulton street, Brooklyn, N. Y.
 FREDERICK LOESER & CO.,
 484 Fulton street, Brooklyn, N. Y.
 A. D. MATTHEWS SONS,
 398 Fulton street, Brooklyn, N. Y.
 SIEGEL-COOPER CO.,
 Sixth avenue and Eighteenth street, New York.</p> <p>Dry Goods—Wholesale.
 THE H. B. CLAFLIN CO.,
 New York.</p> <p>Fish.
 THE JOHN B. IHL COMPANY,
 155 West Street, New York.</p> <p>Fruits and Vegetables.
 JOHN A. HENRY,
 329 Washington street, New York.</p> <p>Fish, Salt and Provisions.
 CHAS. F. MATTLAGE & SONS,
 335 Greenwich street, New York.</p> <p>Furniture and Bedding.
 SIEGEL-COOPER CO.,
 Sixth avenue and Eighteenth street, New York.</p> <p>Groceries.
 ACKER, MERRALL & CONDT,
 135 West Forty-second street, New York.
 AUSTIN, NICHOLS & CO.,
 61 Hudson street, New York.
 L. J. CALLANAN,
 41 Vesey street, New York.
 L. DE GROFF & SON,
 Beach and Washington streets, New York.
 W. B. A. JURGENS,
 Flushing avenue, Brooklyn, N. Y.
 FRANCIS H. LEGGETT & CO.,
 128 Franklin street, New York.
 ALFRED LOWRY & BRO.,
 32 South Front st., Philadelphia, Pa.
 FRANKLIN MACVEAGH & CO.,
 Chicago, Ill.
 PARK & TILFORD,
 917 Broadway, New York.
 SEEMAN BROS.,
 Hudson and North Moore streets, New York.
 SIEGEL-COOPER CO.,
 Sixth avenue and Eighteenth street, New York.
 JOHN S. SILLS & SONS,
 North River & 37th Street, New York.
 R. C. WILLIAMS & CO.,
 56 Hudson street, New York.</p> <p>Hardware, Tools and Supplies.
 HAMMACHER, SCHLEMMER & CO.,
 Fourth avenue, Thirteenth street, New York.
 HULL, GRIPPEN & CO.,
 310 Third avenue, New York.
 WHITE, VAN GLAHN & CO.,
 15 Chatham square, New York.
 F. F. WITTE HARDWARE CO.,
 106 Chambers street, New York.</p> | <p>Heating, Plumbing, Electrical Supplies and Construction.
 EDWARD JOY,
 125 Market St., Syracuse, N. Y.</p> <p>Hospital Supplies.
 THE H. B. CLAFLIN CO.,
 New York.</p> <p>House Furnishing Goods.
 J. S. BARRON & CO.,
 127 Franklin street, New York.
 C. H. & E. S. GOLDBERG,
 West Broadway and Hudson street, New York.
 SAMUEL LEWIS,
 126 Pearl street, New York.
 LEWIS & CONGER,
 130 West Forty-second street, New York.
 SIEGEL-COOPER CO.,
 Sixth avenue and Eighteenth street, New York.</p> <p>Kitchen Equipment.
 BRAMHALL, DEANE CO.,
 264 Water street, New York.
 DUPARQUET, HUOT & MONEUSE CO.,
 43 Wooster street, New York.
 LEWIS & CONGER,
 130 West Forty-second street, New York.
 MORANDI-PROCTOR COMPANY,
 48-50 Union street, Boston, Mass.</p> <p>Laundry Supplies.
 AMERICAN LAUNDRY MACHINE CO.,
 132 West Twenty-seventh street, New York.
 AMERICAN MANGLE & ROLLER CO.,
 Racine, Wis.</p> <p>Leather and Shoemaking Supplies.
 BOSLER BROS.,
 Louisville, Kentucky.</p> <p>Linens.
 GEO. P. BOYCE & CO.,
 35 White street, New York.
 SIEGEL-COOPER CO.,
 Sixth avenue and Eighteenth street, New York.</p> <p>Meats and Provisions.
 BATCHELDER & SNYDER COMPANY,
 55-63 Blackstone Street Boston, Mass.
 CONRON BROS. COMPANY,
 10th Avenue—13th-14th Streets, New York.</p> <p>Office Files and Furniture.
 AMERICAN SCHOOL FURNITURE CO.,
 19 West Eighteenth street, New York.
 CLARKE & BAKER CO.,
 258 Canal street, New York.
 GRAND RAPIDS FURNITURE CO.,
 168 West Thirty-fourth street, New York.</p> <p>Paints and Glass.
 THOMAS C. DUNHAM,
 68 Murray street, New York.
 THOMAS C. EDMONDS & CO.,
 1826-28 Park avenue, New York.</p> <p>Paper.
 THE JEROME PAPER COMPANY,
 570 Seventh Avenue, New York.</p> <p>Printers and Publishers.
 BENJ. H. TYRREL,
 206-208 Fulton street, New York.</p> <p>Sheets and Pillow Cases.
 THE H. B. CLAFLIN CO.,
 New York.</p> <p>Shoes.
 BAY STATE SHOE & LEATHER CO.,
 40 Hudson street, New York.</p> <p>Soap.
 ENOCH MORGAN'S SONS CO.,
 439 West street, New York.</p> <p>Sterilizing Apparatus.
 BRAMHALL, DEANE CO.,
 264 Water street, New York.</p> <p>Typewriters.
 REMINGTON TYPEWRITER CO.,
 327 Broadway, New York.</p> <p>Wood.
 CLARK & WILKINS,
 Eleventh Ave., cor. Twenty-fourth St., N. Y.</p> |
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State Charities Aid Association

I. Inspection and Improvement of Public Institutions

The first object of the association is to improve the condition of public charitable institutions in the state of New York. It has 1,000 volunteer visitors in fifty different counties. Through these and through its office staff it visits state hospitals for the insane, state charitable institutions, county, city and town almshouses and public hospitals. **The number of inmates of such institutions exceeds 47,000, and they cost the public over \$8,000,000 a year.** This voluntary co-operation of private citizens with public officials is a work of **practical patriotism** and has greatly improved the administration of state, county and municipal charities.

II. Charity Legislation

Besides framing and securing the passage of needed legislation, the association **examine carefully all bills relating to charitable matters** (about 100 each year), and takes such action as may be advisable to secure their passage, amendment or defeat. Its independence of official appointment and of the public treasury gives it a peculiarly favorable position for legislative work.

III. Placing Destitute Children in Families

Orphans, foundlings and permanently deserted children are received from public officials and from institutions in which they are supported by public funds, and are placed in carefully selected permanent free homes usually in the country. Many of them are legally adopted. Five hundred and fifty-six children, received since August, 1898, from many different counties, have been placed in free family homes in all parts of this state, and in several other states.

IV. Providing Situations for Mothers with Babies

Homeless mothers with infants or small children received from public maternity hospitals, infant and foundling asylums, and charitable societies, are provided with situations in the country, keeping their children; 590 situations were provided last year; nine children died while with their mothers in situations (death-rate a little over one per cent); in institutions for children of this age the death-rate is very high. The average cost of each mother and baby under our care last year was \$3.72.

V. Boarding Motherless Infants in Families

A joint committee of this Association and the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor receives foundlings, abandoned and other motherless babies from the Department of Public Charities, and places them in carefully selected suburban families to board until they are strong enough to be placed in permanent free homes for adoption; the mortality among the foundlings has thus been reduced to eleven per cent; 327 babies were under care last year. In addition to what the city pays towards the board of the children, the annual cost of the work to the Joint Committee is \$5,000.00.

Total number of children under the supervision of the Association, October 1, 1905, 1,220. If supported in institutions, they would cost the public \$122,000 per year.

ALL BRANCHES OF THE ASSOCIATION'S WORK ARE SUPPORTED BY VOLUNTARY CONTRIBUTIONS

The total expenses are \$30,000 per year. Contributions of any amount will be gratefully received. Checks should be made payable to Charles S. Fairchild, treasurer, Room 702, No. 105 East Twenty-second street. Special contributions for Nos. III, IV or V, (see above) should be so designated. Clothing for women and children, especially babies, is also desired.

105 EAST TWENTY-SECOND STREET, NEW YORK

TO PHILANTHROPIC WORKERS:

WHEN you find children living in a state of neglect and it becomes your aim to uplift the family through the children, we ask that you bear in mind that you have at command the medium of the day and evening industrial schools of the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, where the children receive not only an elementary education of mind and hand, but also a moral uplift and an appreciation of the importance of regularity and the value of steady work as well as a knowledge of a higher standard of living. For the children who do not receive proper nourishment at home, hot dinners are provided in the schools, and the parents in times of sickness or adversity are advised and materially assisted by the teachers, acting as settlement workers and tactful household visitors. More than 10,000 children attended these industrial schools during the year, including 4,000 in the kindergartens; 269 crippled children and fifty-one mentally defective children in special classes, and 140 truant boys in handicrafts.

ORPHANS and abandoned children should be placed out in good, carefully selected family homes in the country. This is the most satisfactory work accomplished by the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY. It is strikingly successful in results, for the orphan or abandoned child is transplanted from the worst environment to the best. During the last year 668 children were placed in families for adoption.

HOMELESS AND WAYWARD BOYS are given a period of probation at our Brace Farm School before homes on farms are sought for them. During the year 701 boys were trained and placed in families.

WILLFUL AND DISOBEDIENT GIRLS are given a training in housework at our Elizabeth Home, No. 307 East Twelfth Street. Last year 235 girls were trained and placed in situations.

DISPOSSESSED MOTHERS with children are cared for temporarily at our Mothers' Home, No. 311 East Twelfth Street. To 466 helpless mothers and children shelter was given during the year.

WE INVITE your co-operation. The list of industrial schools and temporary homes will be sent on application to the Secretary, Mr. C. L. Brace, at the central office, 105 East Twenty-second Street, and information will be cheerfully given.

TO THE PUBLIC:

CONTRIBUTIONS in aid of this great work will be gratefully received by Mr. A. B. HEPBURN, Treasurer of the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, at 105 East Twenty-second Street. Clothing and shoes are greatly needed, and partly worn articles will prove acceptable, as the garments will be repaired in our sewing classes, and the shoes put in condition by the boys of the cobbling classes. Old magazines, books and toys will also be welcome.

CHARITIES

AND The Commons

A WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PHILANTHROPY AND SOCIAL ADVANCE

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PUBLICATION COMMITTEE
CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF
THE CITY OF NEW YORK
105 East 22d Street, New York
Entered at the Post Office, New York, N. Y., as Second
Class Matter

To Readers. In the eight months since the organization of our publication committee, we have merged three magazines and carried on an aggressive educational work. Upon our ability to weather financially this period of growth and development depends the future of this co-operative publication venture.

Readers, then, are asked to bear with the stringent economy which must be resorted to during the summer months. Weekly issues, with exception of the monthly magazine numbers, will be reduced to practically a news basis.

Subscribers, in arrears, are asked to take in good part any bills sent to them—and remit.

Subscribers, in good standing, are asked to think over their circle of friends and see if among them some would not be glad to subscribe. And get them to.

We are not reduced to such straits as the proverbial editor of the country weekly, craving cord wood and meals out, but it is only by an energetic pulling together that progressive plans can be entered into in the fall without serious handicap.

CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS.

Immigration Commission Amendment.

Drastic measures were resorted to by the House leaders in Congress on Monday with result that Senate Bill 4403, amending the present law regulating immigration, was shorn of many of its features and an amendment was put through providing for a commission consisting of two senators, three members of the House and two private citizens to be appointed by the president to make "full inquiry, examination and investigation of the subject of immigration."

The bill as it came from the Senate was referred to the Committee on Immigration and five days later reported with an amendment which was virtually a substitute bill. The most important features were—a five-dollar head tax instead of two dollars as at present (this was thrown out by Monday's vote); the extension of the excluded classes; provision that out-going aliens shall be reported within sixty days of their departure; the extension from two to three years of the period of deportation of aliens; an educational test requiring all aliens over sixteen years of age to read in some language (this was also thrown out by Monday's vote) and the organization of bureaus of information at immigration stations to furnish data concerning the resources, products and manufactures of each state and territory, the price of land, routes of travel, opportunities of employment, etc.

Because of the importance of the legislation, conferees were named by the House Monday in an effort to secure concerted action on the part of the Senate.

For the Physical Welfare of School Children. Announcement is made of the organization of the New York Committee on the Physical Welfare of School Children. In origin and purpose it is unique. Last winter the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor was asked by 115 different school principals to give material relief or personal attention to needy school children. Eye glasses, shoes, school clothes, board in the country, introduction to clinics and special nourishment were provided for hundreds of children; hospital care, nourishment, employment, instruction or serious remonstrance for many parents. Principals, attendance officers and teachers showed by letters and successive applications that they were keenly alive to the physical needs of their pupils, and welcomed every effort to improve their vitality. Week after week announcements were made by the Department of Health showing an alarming percentage of children suffering from malnutrition and other physical defects.¹

As president of the association, R. Fulton Cutting put the situation before Mrs. Herbert L. Satterlee, Messrs Victor Morawetz, Felix M. Warburg, who as school commissioner did so much for special classes, and George S. Brewster, who with himself invited a committee of persons prominently connected with school work, hospitals and charitable societies to supervise for a period of three years, the program outlined below.

The name adopted was Committee on Physical Welfare of School Children. The chairman is Charles C. Burlingham, formerly president of the Board of Education; vice chairman, Leonard E. Opdycke, secretary of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor. Investigations for the committee will be conducted from Room 215, United Charities Building, 105 East 22nd Street, by trained investigators and the secretary, William H. Allen, general agent of the A. I. C. P.

The committee is formed of men and women either intimately familiar with the needs of infants and children or connected with agencies that can materially aid in improving their physical welfare.

Mrs. Tunis G. Bergen, not inappropriately referred to as the "Commissioner of Good Works for Brooklyn";

Charles Loring Brace, secretary of the New York Children's Aid Society;

Charles Stedman Bull, M. D., oculist;

Henry D. Chapin, M. D., nutrition specialist of the Post Graduate Hospital, Sea Cliff Summer Home and Speedwell Society;

Miss Ella Mabel Clark, secretary of Local School Board, District No. 13;

William A. Clark, headworker of Gordon House and secretary to Health Commissioner Darlington;

Prof. F. A. Cleveland of New York University, expert on records and accounts;

Lee K. Frankel, manager United Hebrew Charities;

Miss Mary Harriman of the Junior League and Greenwich House;

Prof. S. M. Lindsay, secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, formerly Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico;

F. S. Meara, M. D., children's specialist;

Victor Morawetz and Herbert L. Satterlee, taxpayers and lawyers;

Dr. D. J. McMahon, supervisor of Catholic Charities;

Prof. David S. Snedden, school administration, Teachers' College;

George W. Vandegift, M. D., oculist;

Miss Lillian D. Wald, Nurses' Settlement;

Richard Welling, A. I. C. P. Committee on Education;

Herbert L. Wheeler, D. D. S., formerly in charge of St. Bartholomew's Free Dental Clinic;

Linsly R. Williams, M. D., examining physician for Sea Breeze and director of tuberculosis work at the Vanderbilt Clinic.

It is not expected that the committee will itself provide material relief or fresh air outings for needy children. It is believed however, that there are private and public agencies in existence that will effectively co-operate with health and educational authorities to secure prompt attention for children whose physical con-

¹See Dr. J. J. Cronin's article in *Charities and The Commons*, April 7.

dition is below normal. Such co-operation the committee aims to further, conducting its work on three lines:

1. *Study of Physical Welfare of School Children.*

- (a) Examination of Board of Health Records of children needing medical, dental or ocular care, and better nourishment.
- (b) Home visitation of such children, in order to ascertain whether their need arises from deficient income or from other causes.
- (c) Effort to secure proper treatment either from parents, or from free clinics or other established agencies.
- (d) Effort to secure proper physical surroundings of children while at school,—playgrounds, baths, etc.

2. *Effort to secure establishment of such a system of school reports and records* as will disclose automatically significant school facts,—e. g., regarding backward pupils, truancy, regularity of attendance, registered children not attending, sickness, physical defects, etc.

3. *Effort to utilize available information* regarding school needs so as to stimulate public interest, and thus aid in securing adequate appropriations to meet school needs.

The first practical steps have been to secure the co-operation of friends of the A. I. C. P. fresh air work in sending to the country for periods from two to eight weeks about 100 backward and truant children whose deficiencies, according to Commissioner Darlington, are primarily physical (due to underfeeding) and removable, if only a trifling sum can be spent upon each for clean air, clean bodies and ample food.

Work for
the Blind in
Cleveland.

For some time the Cleveland Public Library has been much interested in providing reading matter for the blind. As in other states, those connected with the distribution of books have found other and more serious problems in the conditions of those who must read by touch. Stimulus was given by the series of articles on the blind, which appeared in this magazine in February. The Cleveland Social Settlement decided to devote its energies this summer to an experiment in trade training for the blind, modeled

after the work which is being done at the experimental station in Boston, conducted by the Massachusetts Association for the Blind. The co-operation of the Boston station was asked and its superintendent, Charles F. F. Campbell was invited to Cleveland to give an address. This was on June 8, and as a result of the agitation an organization is being formed which will co-operate with existing undertakings. Registration of the blind is to be systematically carried out through the Associated Charities. The investigator will probably be known as the agent of the Cleveland Association of the Blind. A blind home teacher will be engaged to teach the sightless in their homes how to read and by the co-operation of the library thus further the work already begun there. Goodrich House has offered the use of its rooms and looms to try some artistic hand weaving. Finally, the Visiting Nurse Association, with the co-operation of some of the doctors and hospital authorities, has offered to furnish material for a blind person who is to be started as a masseuse. This last piece of work is almost unique—not that a blind person is to be taught massage, for Japan has long shown us that such work is possible to those without sight, but that those who can, have freely and willingly offered to assist in finding patients. At the meeting referred to, the following letter was read by Mr. Campbell from Helen Keller:

The news of the meeting in Cleveland fills me with fresh encouragement and it cannot fail to hearten all the blind of America. For years each gathering of the friends of the sightless has meant a new advance in their march to self-support and active happiness. Now, one by one, our great states are taking up the cause of the blind workman, and the wise philanthropy which aids him to labor side by side with the seeing will ere long supplant the mistaken charity that would render him dependent and inactive.

I hope the summer school for the adult blind in Cleveland will be the beginning of a great industrial school where the blind of Ohio shall be trained to take their part in the work of life. A torch kindled in Ohio, a center of power among the states, must shine forth until it lights the remotest corner where the blind man dwells in darkness.

With heartfelt wishes for the success of your undertaking, I am cordially yours,

HELEN KELLER.

**Virginia's
Charities
Conference.**

The fifth annual convention of the Virginia Conference of Charities and Correction, held in Petersburg, May 23-25, gave proof in more ways than one of the reforms that are often brought about through such meetings. In congratulating the conference on the results of its work, Senator Lassiter of Petersburg enumerated some of the measures passed by the legislature:—A branch of the Western State Hospital for white insane epileptics was created; a vagrant law was enacted; measures for employing idle prisoners became law; larger appropriations were granted the insane asylum and larger provision was made for wayward girls and the negro deaf, dumb and blind. On May 31, after an agitation for the better organization of Petersburg's charities, the final plans for a charity organization society were made in that city. The Virginia conference is following its constitution to the letter in "encouraging co-operation in humanitarian effort and promoting reform."

The work ahead for the conference was outlined in part by President Pilcher as follows:

Our next appeal to the legislature of Virginia will be for a home for the feeble-minded. The appointment of a state board of charities was recommended to the legislature, at our request, by Governor Montague. The legislature did not create the board because of the shortness of the session. The pressure of other legislation prevented due consideration of this needed innovation, but we shall continue to urge the need of a state board to supervise the penitentiary, the jails, the poor-houses, the insane asylums, hospitals and the reformatories.

I call attention to the recommendation, in the annual report of President Roper, that there should be established an institution where crippled children can be received, cared for, and given a home. We have orphanages for the sound and healthy children and provision has been made for incurables, but there are many poor, crippled children, for whom no provision has been made and, in many cases, the only asylum open is the alms-house.

The second session of the conference was given over to "the trained nurse." Miss Annie Gully of Richmond read a paper on the care of the sick in their homes. The Rev. J. S. Foster of Petersburg urged the need for more real sympathy in the work with the poor, and Dr.

John G. Rennie spoke on the relation of the trained nurse to tuberculosis. Other papers were read by Burnett Lewis of Richmond on work for ex-convicts, Miss Mattie Gundry of Fairfax county on the care of the feeble-minded, and Miss Eva Robinson of Henrico county on their education.

John M. Glenn of Baltimore spoke on the need for preventive measures in work among the poor. He contended that:

Better than cure is prevention, the destroying of bad moral and physical environment that weakens soul and body. For instance, the fight against tuberculosis, the keeping out of defective and delinquent immigrants, the enactment of laws compelling sanitary buildings are measures that tend to lessen poverty and disease.

At the evening session Samuel P. Wadill of Henrico county made a plea for a home for wayward girls, and Charles Hutzler, president of the Boy's Reformatory at Richmond, told of the results of reformatory methods in Virginia. Robert Frazer of Richmond spoke on the value of manual training in the schools.

At the final meeting papers were read by the Rev. T. J. Mastin of Henrico county on the needs of Virginia alms-houses and jails, and George B. Davis of Richmond on the modern city alms-house. Judge J. M. Mullen of Petersburg spoke on prison reform, and W. W. Gillett of Richmond presented a paper on the neglected parent. The conference closed with an address by Mrs. Kate Waller Barrett of Alexandria on dependent and delinquent children.

Next year's conference will be held at Roanoke. The officers are:

President: Dr. W. F. Drewry, Petersburg.
Vice-Presidents:

John M. Higgins, Richmond.

Rev. C. S. Blackwell, Norfolk.

Charles W. Kent, University of Virginia.

L. W. Lane, Jr., Williamsburg.

Mrs. Wm. Pilcher, Petersburg.

Secretary: George B. Davis, Richmond.

Treasurer: Robert Gilliam, Petersburg.

Executive Council: J. W. Williams, chairman, Courtland; S. P. Waddill, Henrico county; J. P. Pettyjohn, Lynchburg; Rev. J. T. Mastin, Richmond; Mrs. W. L. Watkins, Petersburg; Mrs. Kate Pleasants Minor, Petersburg; John G. Osborne, Radford; Robert Gilliam, Petersburg; John L. Roper, Norfolk; Geo. B. Davis, Richmond.

Legislation
Affecting
New York's
Insane.

The *Thirteenth Annual Report* of the State Charities Aid Association of

New York to the State Commission in Lunacy reviews recent legislation affecting the insane, especially the re-establishing of boards of managers for state hospitals, which was carried through at the instance of the Association. Considerable space is given to the methods of deporting insane aliens, and of temporarily caring for such cases on Ellis Island and elsewhere. The present methods of deporting to the countries from which they came immigrants who become insane on the journey over, or within two years after landing, are severely criticized. The immigration law, as construed by the immigration authorities, does not contemplate the return of aliens to the original point of departure, but only to the point at which they embarked. It frequently happens, therefore, that insane aliens who are deported are landed hundreds, if not thousands, of miles from their homes and friends in a strange land, without means. It is thought that, even under existing law, greater pains might be taken to notify the friends of aliens who are being deported. The association recommends that the immigration law be amended so as to provide that an attendant of the same sex as the insane alien shall accompany him to the point of original departure. Instances are described where patients thus deported have disappeared and their friends have been unable to find them months after their deportation. Another injustice is that immigrants becoming insane on the voyage over are detained on ship board and returned by the same steamer without having been given any curative treatment for their disease, which is frequently of an acute and curable nature. Immigrants afflicted with ordinary physical ailments and ordered deported are treated until they are well enough for the return voyage, but the insane are not classed with sick people. Ellis Island, where insane aliens are frequently received and detained, is at present not provided with any suitable accommodations for such cases, but steps are being taken to pro-

vide a special pavilion for the accommodation and care of insane aliens and of cases under observation to determine their mental condition. The methods employed by the federal government in detecting such cases are considered very satisfactory, several physicians of the public health and marine hospital service who have had experience in institutions for the insane being detailed for duty in connection with this class of immigrants.

The report makes the welcome statement that the insane have increased during the last year at a rate considerably smaller than has been customary in recent years, last year's increase being only 547, which is smaller than any year since 1881, and also smaller than the average annual increase for the past thirty years. The recovery rate has increased and was 26.97 per cent of the number of original admissions to state hospitals, the number of recoveries being 1,429 last year as against 1,303 the previous year. The overcrowding of the state hospitals is deprecated and attention is called to the fact that the Manhattan State Hospital suffers out of all proportion to the others, the overcrowding there being more than thirty-five per cent., while the average for all the thirteen hospitals is less than seven per cent. It is considered unfortunate that practically all the new buildings in recent years should have been erected at hospitals at a distance from the metropolitan district where the overcrowding most needs relief. The four hospitals located on Ward's Island and Long Island, which take patients from New York city and Long Island, have a total capacity of 10,255, while the patients from the six counties in this section number 12,585. This means that more than 2,300 must be sent away to institutions, the nearest of which are at Middletown and Poughkeepsie, and all the others at distances of between 200 and 500 miles. The location of a state hospital in Washington county is disapproved, and the recommendation is made that the state dispose of the land at Comstocks and provide a better and more suitable site.

HOUSES SUPPLYING CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS

To secure a place in this Directory the name of a Supply House must be submitted by an Institution purchasing from it, and known to the publishers of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS. Published every Saturday.

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WEST DISINFECTING CO. (INC.),
11 East Fifty-ninth street, New York.

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Employment Exchange.

Address all communications to Miss Helen M. Kelsey, Editor Employment Exchange Department of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, Room 555, 156 Fifth Avenue. Kindly enclose postage if a reply is desired.

The advertisements of the Employment Exchange Department will be discontinued for a few weeks. Meantime the work of the Department goes on as usual.

Both employers and candidates are invited to make their needs known, so that, at the opening of the busy season (about August 1st) the Editor may be in a position to act promptly.

State Charities Aid Association

I. Inspection and Improvement of Public Institutions

The first object of the association is to improve the condition of public charitable institutions in the state of New York. It has 1,000 volunteer visitors in fifty different counties. Through these and through its office staff it visits state hospitals for the insane, state charitable institutions, county, city and town almshouses and public hospitals. The number of inmates of such institutions exceeds 47,000, and they cost the public over \$8,000,000 a year. This voluntary co-operation of private citizens with public officials is a work of practical patriotism and has greatly improved the administration of state, county and municipal charities.

II. Charity Legislation

Besides framing and securing the passage of needed legislation, the association examine carefully all bills relating to charitable matters (about 100 each year), and takes such action as may be advisable to secure their passage, amendment or defeat. Its independence of official appointment and of the public treasury gives it a peculiarly favorable position for legislative work.

III. Placing Destitute Children in Families

Orphans, foundlings and permanently deserted children are received from public officials and from institutions in which they are supported by public funds, and are placed in carefully selected permanent free homes usually in the country. Many of them are legally adopted. Five hundred and fifty-six children, received since August, 1898, from many different counties, have been placed in free family homes in all parts of this state, and in several other states.

IV. Providing Situations for Mothers with Babies

Homeless mothers with infants or small children received from public maternity hospitals, infant and foundling asylums, and charitable societies, are provided with situations in the country, keeping their children; 590 situations were provided last year; nine children died while with their mothers in situations (death-rate a little over one per cent); in institutions for children of this age the death-rate is very high. The average cost of each mother and baby under our care last year was \$3.72.

V. Boarding Motherless Infants in Families

A joint committee of this Association and the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor receives foundlings, abandoned and other motherless babies from the Department of Public Charities, and places them in carefully selected suburban families to board until they are strong enough to be placed in permanent free homes for adoption; the mortality among the foundlings has thus been reduced to eleven per cent; 327 babies were under care last year. In addition to what the city pays towards the board of the children, the annual cost of the work to the Joint Committee is \$5,000.00.

Total number of children under the supervision of the Association, October 1, 1905, 1,220. If supported in institutions, they would cost the public \$122,000 per year.

ALL BRANCHES OF THE ASSOCIATION'S WORK ARE SUPPORTED BY VOLUNTARY CONTRIBUTIONS

The total expenses are \$30,000 per year. Contributions of any amount will be gratefully received. Checks should be made payable to Charles S. Fairchild, treasurer, Room 702, No. 105 East Twenty-second street. Special contributions for Nos. III, IV or V, (see above) should be so designated. Clothing for women and children, especially babies, is also desired.

105 EAST TWENTY-SECOND STREET, NEW YORK

Please mention CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS when writing to advertisers.

TO PHILANTHROPIC WORKERS:

WHEN you find children living in a state of neglect and it becomes your aim to uplift the family through the children, we ask that you bear in mind that you have at command the medium of the day and evening industrial schools of the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, where the children receive not only an elementary education of mind and hand, but also a moral uplift and an appreciation of the importance of regularity and the value of steady work as well as a knowledge of a higher standard of living. For the children who do not receive proper nourishment at home, hot dinners are provided in the schools, and the parents in times of sickness or adversity are advised and materially assisted by the teachers, acting as settlement workers and tactful household visitors. More than 10,000 children attended these industrial schools during the year, including 4,000 in the kindergartens; 269 crippled children and fifty-one mentally defective children in special classes, and 140 truant boys in handicrafts.

ORPHANS and abandoned children should be placed out in good, carefully selected family homes in the country. This is the most satisfactory work accomplished by the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY. It is strikingly successful in results, for the orphan or abandoned child is transplanted from the worst environment to the best. During the last year 668 children were placed in families for adoption.

HOMELESS AND WAYWARD BOYS are given a period of probation at our Brace Farm School before homes on farms are sought for them. During the year 701 boys were trained and placed in families.

WILLFUL AND DISOBEDIENT GIRLS are given a training in housework at our Elizabeth Home, No. 307 East Twelfth Street. Last year 235 girls were trained and placed in situations.

DISPOSSESSED MOTHERS with children are cared for temporarily at our Mothers' Home, No. 311 East Twelfth Street. To 466 helpless mothers and children shelter was given during the year.

WE INVITE your co-operation. The list of industrial schools and temporary homes will be sent on application to the Secretary, Mr. C. L. Brace, at the central office, 105 East Twenty-second Street, and information will be cheerfully given.

TO THE PUBLIC:

CONTRIBUTIONS in aid of this great work will be gratefully received by Mr. A. B. HEPBURN, Treasurer of the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, at 105 East Twenty-second Street. Clothing and shoes are greatly needed, and partly worn articles will prove acceptable, as the garments will be repaired in our sewing classes, and the shoes put in condition by the boys of the cobbling classes. Old magazines, books and toys will also be welcome.

105 EAST TWENTY-SECOND STREET, NEW YORK

Edward T. Devine
Editor
Graham Taylor, Associate
Lee K. Frankel, Associate for
Jewish Charity

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Playground Plan for Washington.

The movement to make the National Capital a model city has not been neglected on the side of parks and playgrounds. The following scheme has been drawn up by a committee of the Playground Association of America and is an example of comprehensive planning to meet the needs of a modern community for out-door recreation. The membership of the committee gives it special weight:

Luther Halsey Gulick, superintendent of physical culture, New York public schools.

Seth T. Stewart, district superintendent who initiated the recreation centers in connection with the New York public schools.

Myron T. Scudder of New Paltz, N. Y., who is leading in organizing the play of country schools.

Archibald A. Hill, secretary of the Metropolitan Parks Association, New York.

G. A. Webber, U. S. Department of Labor.

Dr. Henry S. Curtis, supervisor of Playgrounds, Washington, D. C.

THE PLAN

1. It seems to us obvious that the playground system of every city should represent a plan which would provide a playground within reasonable walking distance of every child. Our reasons for this are that play under proper conditions is essential to the health, as well as the physical, and moral well-being of the child. Hence, they are a necessity for all children—as much as schools. If they are a necessity, they must be so

located that all the children can reach them.

2. It has seemed to us also that the beautiful triangles and circles and ornamental parks, which obtain so plentifully in Washington are almost negligible so far as their utility as playgrounds is concerned. None but the very small children can use them for play. Organized games can be played in none of them.

3. For school playgrounds the most careful canvass which we have been able to make of the needs of the children make it evident that the present London requirement is the minimum amount that should be allowed. This is thirty square feet of playground for each child in the school.

4. Inasmuch as public education is now recognized as a proper function for public support, and playgrounds are a necessity for the wellbeing of children, we believe that they should be on land owned by the city, and also that they should be operated at the expense of the city. We believe that it is necessary there should be at least one public playground in each of the school districts of Washington. This would provide for not less than two acres of playground for each 4,000 children.

5. The most extended experiments which have been carried on in recent years indicate that the largest usefulness of these fields cannot be reached without the existence of playground buildings. Notably in Chicago and Boston this has been demonstrated. In view, however, of the necessity

of the adaptation of these buildings to particular local conditions, it would probably be wise to erect one such building and test it in all details before recommending the general plan to the city.

6. The playgrounds do not meet

This number, dealing with the impress of the newer and more vigorous civics upon what is permanent in municipal environment, is published under the supervision of Archibald A. Hill, secretary of the Metropolitan Parks Association, New York, in whose field it falls as a departmental editor of "CHARITIES and THE COMMONS."—Ed.

the needs of the older boys. It has been found practically impossible to care for the older boys on the same grounds on which the little ones are cared for. Hence, it seems to us that it is essential to have athletic fields. In our judgment, one for each of the four sections of the city would probably be adequate. The present park system of Washington is entirely unprovided with athletic fields. The hours of labor in Washington are shorter than in other cities. Hence, we are inclined to believe that there is peculiar need for these athletic fields.

**Work of
Rehabilitation
in San Fran-
cisco.**

A new commission of three members has assumed charge of all relief work at San Francisco hitherto in the hands of the army and the Red Cross. Mayor Schmitz is represented by E. F. Moran, formerly a newspaper man and at the present time president of the Municipal Civil Service Committee and chairman of the Committee on History; the Finance Committee elected, on divided vote, George H. Pippy, an attorney, and president of the Union League Club; and the American National Red Cross is represented by Edward T. Devine, on the understanding that he may withdraw at the end of two months. Dr. Devine was elected chairman and Ernest P. Bicknell, secretary.

The budget for maintaining camps, sanitation, etc., for the month of July calls for one hundred thousand dollars. Army officers on leave will be retained in the principal administrative positions in the relief work. The commission also plans building homes for rent and installment purchase.

Another committee on special rehabilitation, independent of the Relief Commission above mentioned, is to have charge of all grants to individuals other than food and clothing. To secure concerted action, Dr. Devine is chairman of this committee also and the other members are Archbishop Riordan, Bishop Nichols, Rabbi Voorsanger, O. K. Cushing, F. W. Dohrman and Dr. John Gallwey. A recommendation was made to James D. Phelan, chairman of the Finance Committee, for an appropriation to begin work of one hundred thousand dollars to be available either for the Relief Commission or for the Committee on Rehabilitation as preferred, the

Associated Charities co-operating with the latter committee. Expert assistants have been secured from other cities.

**A Swedish
Investigation
of Juvenile
Courts.**

After four months spent in investigating juvenile courts and probation in this country Judge Harold Salomon, member of the Law Courts of Stockholm, returned last month to Sweden to make his official report.

A sister of Judge Salomon spent some time in this country investigating the school system and from reports of juvenile courts which fell into her hands he prepared an article on the subject. This led to requests from members of the faculty of the University of Uppsala for a more extended pamphlet. This in turn led to his official commissioning by the Swedish government to make a thorough study of American methods. As new laws had recently gone into effect in Sweden with respect to juvenile offenders and as bills were then pending in the Swedish diet, providing for the suspended sentence and probation, the action of the government in sending a special commissioner to this country is evidence of the importance attached to the prevention of crime.

Whether or not the juvenile court system will be taken over, it is probable that certain features, such as parental responsibility, will be advocated.

**Permanent
Seaside
Hospital.**

Announcement was made Monday of the completion of the building fund of the first American seaside hospital for children suffering from tuberculosis of the bones and glands. This has been a pioneer work of experimentation on the part of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor. In Europe there are numbers of these hospitals—Paris provides for some 2,000 such child-sufferers—and as a result of an investigation of the French institutions by John Seely Ward, a tent camp was started two years ago near Sea Gate, on Coney Island. Here the results were such that one of the nearby fresh air cottages at Sea Breeze, the summer home

of the association, was turned into an all-the-year-round hospital. There are now forty-four children, some of them carried there when it seemed a forlorn hope, some of them strapped to boards night and day, but all of them living their waking hours winter and summer out in the open of the salt air. Of the forty-nine patients the first year, all but four were received in a far advanced condition. At the end of the year Dr. Linsley R. Williams reported nine had been discharged as cured, two died, two were hopeless, four doubtful and thirty-two were improving.

When investigations showed that not forty-four but forty-four hundred such child sufferers were to be found in Greater New York and sixty thousand of them estimated throughout the country, the importance of developing this experiment on larger lines was seen and a fund of \$250,000 appealed for. The raising of this money has had its picturesque features. Miss Laura Winnington, a member of the staff of *The Outlook*, wrote from her death bed as her last work, an article which met with a first generous response. Jacob A. Riis has championed the plan from the first and through him President Roosevelt visited the beach of the little cripples. And a general campaign of publicity along unique lines to put their needs before the givers of the community has been carried out energetically by William H. Allen.

By gifts received in the last few days, the offer of John D. Rockefeller of \$125,000, which expired Monday, was covered. There is hope, then, for hundreds of little fellows like Max Gross, who told his nurse,—“I don’t want to get dead and be an angel; I want to get off my board and play first.”

Upon the action of the Senate in the closing days of Congress has depended a

bill which would put an end to shanghaiing in American ports. It passed the House and was reported favorably late in June by a senate committee with as-

surances from individual senators that its passage would be effected at this session. The measure is the result of the exposure of the outrageous practices of last autumn. The Legal Aid Society of Philadelphia opened its office in October and in a few weeks was busy with the collection of evidence against three of the worst agencies in the city. These agencies were only local offices for the main office in Baltimore, from which agents are continually sent to New York and Philadelphia, to bring gangs of men to be shipped. The men are usually sent in lots of ten or twelve at a time, so that they may not be too strong to control and yet be enough to pay for the agent’s trip by the assignment of their wages which he procures from them in advance. An extended investigation was carried on by Frances Anne Keay, attorney of the Legal Aid Society, acting as fellow of the College Settlements Association. The situation is described by Miss Keay as follows:

As soon as it became known that this work was being done a motley crowd of clients presented themselves. Among the most extraordinary were two Italian scissors grinders who had been enticed to the shipping agent office—offered easy work and good pay—and so lured to Baltimore, where they were forced on board an oyster boat, made to work frequently until one and two o’clock at night, at dredging—hard work for the strongest laborer—and given bean soup to live on.

Two causes are effective with the shipping agent in getting his men. First—Every coast seaman or longshoreman knows that he will get no wages or almost no wages from oystering. Second—He knows, too, that the food is poor and the captains, if bad men, are entirely unrestrained in their abuse. In other words, the detailed legislation applied to seamen in every other trade is not extended to oyster boats. The result is easily seen. The agents must take those that they can find. Scissors grinders, farmers, cooks, riff-raff of all degrees of degradation and physical collapse are picked up—intoxicated just enough to have the idea that they are going to a “fine job” and the first thing that they know they come to their senses down the bay.

Many tramps and drunkards are picked up along the wharves and in freight cars. A favorite trick is for the agent to impersonate a police officer—he can easily get a tin badge—and to threaten the House of Correction unless the vagrant will come with him. One man was given a drink in one of our large squares, on a bitterly cold day in

November, just for good fellowship, and he could remember nothing more except a dazed trip through the cars to Baltimore where he was locked up in the back room of an empty house over night and shipped the next day on a bug-eye.

But sometimes an able-bodied applicant appears. A young colored boy of unusual intelligence was promised work on a liner and taken to Baltimore to join his ship there. The same agent promised a strong healthy man, work on a farm in Virginia. Needless to say the men after being thus lured to Baltimore, were not allowed to escape, but were taken to the office, and left in the room upstairs with the door locked. One man attempting to escape was knocked down in the street. Others were beaten by burly colored fellows. All were shipped in small numbers at night and carried off down the bay. It is almost impossible to escape from the boats as they transfer their men and cargo from one to another, so that some do not come into port for weeks. The men work on until their strength is gone and they are put on shore penniless to beat their way back to Philadelphia or New York.

The bill before Congress was framed comprehensively to cover the whole crime from the time the men are approached in Philadelphia or New York to the time when they leave the boats. The most important provisions are as follows:

Sec. 1. It shall be unlawful, etc., etc.—to procure or induce, or attempt to procure or induce, by force, threats or representations known or believed by the person making them to be untrue, the going on board of such vessel, ship or watercraft of any person.

Sec. 2. Prohibits the procuring of men while intoxicated or under the influence of any drug.

Sec. 3. Prohibits the procuring of any person by threats or false representations to sign any shipping agreement.

Sec. 4. Prohibits the procuring of men to sign an agreement to ship when the men are intoxicated or drugged.

Sec. 2 Prohibits the detention on board vessel of any person procured in the manner provided in the previous section.

Sec. 3. Prohibits the aiding or abetting of the acts declared unlawful above.

Sec. 4. Provides the penalty of a fine not exceeding five thousand dollars or by imprisonment not exceeding five years or both.

Sec. 5. Prohibits the advance payments of wages to oyster-boat men by repealing the sections of the former act of Congress which exempts these men from the law applying to the coasting trade.

It was owing to the wise policy of District Attorney Rose of Baltimore, who has had many years experience in trying

these cases that this last section was added. In preventing advance payments which invariably go to the shipping agent who thus receives double compensation, namely from both captains and men, it is hoped that he will either be put out of business and his nefarious practices prevented; or it will at least assure to the men some compensation for their work and so encourage a more intelligent class of seamen who will not suffer the outrages which have been inflicted on the boys and worn out men who have hitherto been enticed into this work.

The Genesis
of Goods We
Buy.

Possibly no one undertaking of the year provoked such wide-spread discussion in the industrial and philanthropic circles of Germany as an exhibition which traced articles of ordinary consumption back to their early stages. Labels showed the prices paid the workers on articles of wear and food products and described the conditions of production. In the case of the sweated industries, the showing was nothing if not damaging to the civilization of the Empire and assertions were made and denied that the examples were extreme ones. The exhibition was made the subject of an American consular report and has led to a similar exhibition recently carried through in London, where it brought before public opinion conditions of manufacture no whit less discreditable and distressing.

Along similar lines is planned an exhibition of industrial conditions in Horticultural Hall, Philadelphia, December 10th to 15th, 1906. It will be carried out by the Consumers' League of Philadelphia, the Civic Club, the New Century Club and the Pennsylvania Child Labor Committee, for the purpose of showing in graphic form some of the actual conditions—both good and bad—of modern industry. To quote from the announcement:

The better conditions of industry will be illustrated by exhibits of articles made in well-ordered factories, such as those which use the consumers' league label, accompanied by information regarding the conditions of employment; and good selling conditions will be represented by exhibits from the retail stores on the "White List."

The evil features, such as sweat shop work

and child-labor, will be shown by a collection of sweat shop and tenement-made articles, accompanied as far as possible by schedules of wages, hours of labor, and sanitary conditions; and by a series of representations picturing actual cases of child-labor, and of ill-regulated, unsanitary and inhuman work conditions. There will also be exhibits illustrative of the various means employed by different organizations to lessen these evils, and those that follow in their wake.

Photographs, statistical charts, and printed matter will be used to arouse further public interest; and it has been planned to have nightly lectures by men and women most thoroughly acquainted with the conditions shown in the exhibition.

Further information may be had from Mrs. Charles Hatfield, chairman, 258 South 18th Street, Philadelphia.

Russia and the Jewish Communities in America. Singly, or in numbers, refugees from the earlier Russian massacres can be found in Jewish communities in America. And their presence here lends a personal, vivid note to the quick sympathies aroused over such new atrocities as that at Byelostock on June 14. Notably is this true of the East Side, New York. What the dragging weeks of Russia's unrest mean to the Russian born in this country—the meetings, the mournings, the forebodings, the bitterness which translate the fragmentary press dispatches into the harrowing realities of remembered riots—can only be half realized by those whose heartstrings do not tell them more than is sent by the cables, and who live on quietly in the secure heritage of American liberty.

A larger appreciation of the Russian situation has come to American Jews and their journals are speaking with the vehemence borne of long suffering. To quote from two current editorials:

The Hebrew Standard.—In our synagogues the *El Mole Rachamim* will be chanted, and the air will ring with speeches of indignation, resolutions will be offered, frantic appeals will be made to the government—the massacres will still continue. * * *

What can we say?

What shall we say?

Shall we weep?

Of what avail are tears? * * *

For nineteen centuries we have been false and faithless to our own. We have run after every will-o-the-wisp because it was not

Jewish. We have been everything to everybody, *we have not been Jews*, we have taught our children loyalty and patriotism to others, and the face of the globe is saturated with the blood of Jewish fathers, mothers and children.

Jews have fought for the freedom of others, but have not yet liberated themselves.

* * *

The American Hebrew.—Horror succeeds horror in the Jewish pale. After Kishineff, Gomel; after Gomel, the October Pogromy which one would have thought would have satiated the bloodthirsty appetite of the Russian Bureaucracy. But once the appetite for Jew-baiting is aroused nothing but stern force can repress it, and force is the last measure which Czar Nicholas the Second will use against his orthodox subjects and officials who have been engaged in massacring his Jewish subjects. For there can be no further distinguishing the matter that with the Czar, and with him alone, rests the responsibility of the latest horror of Byelostok. * * *

What else was to be expected? For years police officials and military officers clearly proved to be implicated in attacks upon the Jews have gone scot free and in many cases have received higher appointments. For years the official organ of the government has, too, bracketed together Jews and revolutionists as the chief enemies of order of the Russian empire. * * *

Terrible days are before Russia and its people. The long-expected conflict between the barbarous Bureaucracy and the populists has at last awakened the claims of justice and liberty which cannot long be delayed. The oft-repeated attempt to avert the rightful wrath of the people from the Bureaucrats to the Jews has had its day, but in their impotent rage there is no knowing what the senseless officials of the Czar may still attempt. * * *

Massachusetts' New Juvenile Statutes.

Massachusetts has enacted two new laws of far reaching social importance. The first changes the methods of dealing with juvenile offenders; the other creates a juvenile court for the Boston central district. The delinquency bill is framed along the general lines of those of other states but the changes made are more radical than in some other places. It is distinctly provided that "the proceedings shall not be deemed to be criminal proceedings." Children will not plead to complaints; there will be no verdicts of "guilty" or "not guilty," but in their place an adjudication that the complaint has or has not been proved. If proved, the boy or girl will be "adjudged a delinquent child."

The probation officer has a large place in the system, both before, during and after the trial, as an investigator and as (practically) a guardian of the child. There are no convictions of crime, and no punishments. The power to impose fines is taken away on the ground that it is strictly penal, but a child may be committed to the Lyman School for Boys or to the Lancaster School for Girls, and even to the State Reformatory, for discipline and reformation. He cannot be sent to a prison, a jail or house of correction for delinquency, but power is given to substitute criminal proceedings for delinquency proceedings, in cases of older and hardened children, and the authority to punish in such cases remains. It is thought that there will be few of these. Parents found to be responsible for waywardness of delinquent children are liable to fine or imprisonment.

The juvenile court bill creates a new court which will have no other business except that of caring for delinquent and neglected children. It will have a judge, a clerk, and two probation officers, and all the power needed for work of a high grade. The delinquency bill had little opposition. The bill creating the new court was opposed by some, but was passed in both branches by large majorities. Both laws go into effect September 1.

In this connection, an interesting light on the origin of the probation system in the work of the Boston Children's Aid Society from 1863 down, was thrown by Robert Treat Paine in his address as president of the last Massachusetts State Conference of Charities. While a good share of this work was done by "Uncle" Cook, it was largely done under the counsel and personal supervision of Mr. Paine's mother, who gave to the work of the Children's Aid Society all the last years of her life. It is significant, then, that this year's legislation places Massachusetts, after forty years, again in the forefront for progressive methods in dealing with incipient wrongdoing. To quote from the dedicatory note attached by Mr. Paine in publishing his address:

I dedicate this address to the memory of

my honored and beloved mother, Fanny Cabot Paine, who after rearing her own nine children devoted the last fifteen years of her life to caring for the exposed children of the poor in Boston. She was one of the founders of the Boston Children's Aid Society in 1865 and thereafter it was the joy of her life to know the individual boys, who in a steady stream came under the saving influence of that society, to know their characters, dangers, hopes and possibilities; and then to help them.

Here it was, I think, that probation work in Massachusetts began. Rufus R. Cook, an officer of the Municipal Court, known as "Uncle Cook," a judicious, trusty and devoted expert, rescued boys from sentence, took them on probation and started them aright. This work was largely done under the counsel of Mrs. Paine, as a director of the society, who loved to give to each and all of these boys, as well as to the boys at the Pine Farm Home of the society, the watchful care of her motherly heart to the day of her death in 1878.

**The Labor
Information
Office for
Italians.**

The Labor Information Office for Italians has been incorporated in New York, opening executive offices in the New York Life Building and a labor bureau at 59 Lafayette street, under the superintendency of M. Rossati, formerly the representative of the Department of Agriculture of Italy at New York. The Italian government is said to have contributed \$30,000 to the undertaking. The office has been in operation only a month, but with this backing, with its report of having secured work for 996 men during that period, and with its stated principle of securing work outside of New York, the development of the enterprise will be watched with interest. The articles of incorporation provide that the society shall be strictly non-sectarian and non-political, shall not take part in the breaking of a strike nor in the promotion of a strike, and that not less than two-thirds of its directors shall be citizens of the United States. But without doubt, the most far-reaching feature of the undertaking has to do with its proposal to grapple definitely with some of the underlying problems involved in the immigrant labor situation; and hence labor in general. This puts the corporation on a very different field from an ordinary employment bureau and means, if it does not get side-tracked by

the routine of finding many jobs, that it will have its hands full in the next two or three years in dealing with the abuses growing out of the padrone system on one hand and the irresponsibility on the other of the corporations and contractors as to their crude labor force.

Three of the objects of the Labor Information Office as set forth in the petition for incorporation presented by Gino C. Speranza, attorney for the petitioners, and Edward M. Shepard, counsel, are as follows:

1. To establish and maintain an association for the diffusion of information and intelligence among Italian immigrants and other Italians who are resident in this country but not yet familiar with its customs, with respect to the various industries of this country in which they could properly seek employment.

2. To establish and maintain such offices or bureaus as may conveniently promote the interests of such immigrants and of other Italians, inform them of labor conditions and other conditions of living in various parts of the country and assist them to advantageous employment; and to promote harmonious feelings between them and other bodies of American citizens earning their livelihood by useful industries.

3. To secure the co-operation, advice, good will and friendly relations of labor unions and other lawful associations of laboring men and employees, or of associations of employers and of the Department of Commerce and Labor and of the immigration authorities and of other officials of the United States government, and of the Emigration Department and other departments of the government of Italy, and of the official representatives of the state of New York or its municipalities or other states or of their municipalities.

Exhibition of Safety and Industrial Hygiene.

An exhibition of safety devices and industrial hygiene will be held in New

York, January 28—February 9, 1907, by the American Institute of Social Service, and may prove the nucleus of a permanent museum of security for America.

Through the courtesy of the Museum of Natural History, the west hall has been loaned for the exhibition, and full sized models of safe-guarded machinery will show the latest devices for protection.

The institute has recently collected newspaper accounts of industrial accidents and they make ghastly reading,

not alone on account of the amount of blood spilled, limbs crushed and maimed and lives lost, but for the reason that the majority are unnecessary and preventable. Isolated accidents here and there, no matter how horrible, come to notice one at a time, and we lose their full significance. But when one mail brings in as many as sixty clippings telling of industrial accidents which have occurred all over the United States, it seems to be a case of contributory negligence chargeable against dormant public opinion, the false economy of such business men as hesitate to install safety devices upon the score of expense, and the foolhardiness of such workmen as resent their adoption as an imputation against ability to take care of themselves.

There are two other reasons why safety appliances have not largely been adopted in America. First, because of their scarcity; second, because there have been few places where manufacturers could see them in practical operation before going to the expense of purchasing them. There are especial reasons why labor should be protected in the United States because of the many immigrants, ignorant of our spoken language and machine shop systems of work. In a steel foundry the other day, an Italian got in the way of a rapidly moving bar of iron at white heat and was run through the body. He could neither read the conspicuously placed warnings nor comprehend the meaning of the shouts of his fellow workers.

There are, to-day, four museums of security in the world, the oldest being the one in Amsterdam, organized in 1893. Munich opened hers in 1900; Berlin in 1903 and Paris in 1905. All of them receive aid either from the state or municipality, but their expenses are largely met by interested men of means. The machinery is run by electricity and may be instantly started or stopped. Devices for the protection of life are painted red, while those for sanitation are blue. A committee of experts composed of technicians, factory inspectors and labor representatives make the selection of de-

vices, which are accepted as a loan by the museum for one year with the privilege of renewal. In this way the models are kept down to date. Manufacturers from all parts of the world go to these museums and numbers of them may be seen at all times inspecting various safe-guarded machines, with a view to installing them in their own factories and machine shops.

Parks and the Public

Archibald A. Hill

Metropolitan Parks Association, New York

Only a few years ago the attitude of the public toward the parks was that the park is an end in itself and not a means to an end. The parks were put in excellent condition and kept so. When human beings intruded they were compelled to walk or ride through or else sit down and watch other people going through. The condition of the park was the main thing and if that could be preserved and people also use the park, well and good. If otherwise, the people must so use it that it still could be kept properly.

Doubtless this spirit does not dominate the St. Louis Park Commissioners; yet their report for 1905 has in it forty-one pictures of bridges, vistas, roads and statuary and only three which show human beings enjoying the parks. On the other hand the report of the South Parks Commissioners of Chicago for 1905 contains sixteen pictures of which fifteen show happy throngs gaining health and strength in the parks of the South Side. The pictures in these reports show the trend of the park movement in America and throw an interesting light on Mr. Parker's article on another page. The old idea dies hard and the struggle for the social use of the park is much of it still in the future. But now the more advanced park managers realize that the task before them is to arrange their ground in such a manner that they will attract the largest number of people. Boston has led in adopting devices to this end. An instance of this is a wind-shield of fir trees placed around the benches in the Public Gardens in winter. The result of this trifling expenditure is that

even on days when the northeast wind is blowing hard, the gardens are filled with women caring for little children.

It is this spirit of studying how to increase the value of the parks to the people that is now demanded of the park managers.

* * * * *

The acquisition of parks by cities and towns goes on apace; even small villages have their park and playground movements. But too often these parks when secured are all of one type. To many people a park is a park and no other idea presents itself. To the contrary, a park is part of the civic machinery to enable the inhabitants of the brick-walled streets to lead a normal, physical, mental, and moral life. The needs of all people are not the same nor are all our needs the same at all times. Therefore to persist, not so much through set purpose but more through lack of careful planning, in having all our parks of the same type is to ignore the fact that human needs vary with the day and hour and with the individual. It is peculiarly timely then that the types of open spaces that are required by American cities should be defined by those leaders who have most quickly seized upon these differences.

* * * * *

The City of New York to-day has an estimated investment of \$300,000,000 in its parks. The rapidity with which the population is increasing coupled with the fact that certain sections which need the parks most have been overlooked in the past distribution, makes it practically certain that great expenditures will have to be made in the future. Yet this vast enterprise is now conducted without any accurate criteria by which to judge the value of the various park features already established or to decide upon the relative merits of specific propositions for purchasing new parks and playgrounds.

* * * * *

Parks can no longer be looked upon as luxuries. As the commissioner of health in New York has recently pointed out they are part and parcel of the whole effort of the city to prevent sickness and therefore are as necessary as hospitals or food inspection. The problem before each

city then is not merely to acquire parks but to acquire a variety of them and to place each where that particular kind of park is needed. This is not saying that the problem of park distribution is easy to solve as would be the case if the population of a city were evenly distributed over its entire area. When Savannah, Ga., was first planned, each ward was given a park. But such a plan can be conclusive only so long as the population remains evenly distributed. Savannah itself has grown beyond this plan and now needs parks in other sections of the city. Nevertheless these early settlers in Savannah grasped a fundamental fact of city life, namely, that each section of a city should ultimately have a park within easy access to every inhabitant of that section. This applies especially to the playgrounds and small city squares but also to all other open spaces so far as they have proved to supply a need of the city dweller.

* * * * *

Is it not time then that American cities and towns in spending more money for parks should inquire into the needs of the people these parks are to serve, the possibilities of the surrounding country to meet these needs and the best methods of making these parks of service to the greatest number of people?

Certain facts should now be taken for granted.

1. Assuming that parks are a necessity in modern city life each section of the city should receive parks but

2. Certain sections of the city have such a vastly disproportionate number of people per acre that they should have a larger park acreage in proportion to the whole acreage; and, also, should receive their parks first. Real estate in the crowded wards of American cities is not likely to grow cheaper.

3. The parks in the city must be adapted to the needs of the surrounding population and an effort made to gain the greatest efficiency from each park by proper equipment and planning, bearing in mind that children must play, that people need beauty and quiet.

The standard to be set is not acres but

human need; not plant culture but human culture. Parks are to be made for man and not man for parks.

Public Spirit in Public Appointments

Graham Taylor

It is a pleasure to recount some recent expressions of higher loyalty to the public good in appointments to public office. First if not chief among them is to be rated the respectful refusal of Judge Julian W. Mack of Chicago to be transferred to the appellate court. His appointment by his associates was regarded by them and by him as a professional promotion. But he estimated the public service to be rendered on the juvenile court bench, which absorbs the largest part of his judicial functions, to be so much greater at this juncture than that which the higher court opened to him that he begged his associates to leave him where he is. In deference to his own and the public desire they did so. By this action the court will more surely secure its adequate building equipment providing for court room, detention home, and probation offices, under one roof, thus greatly promoting the efficiency of their service. The Juvenile Protective Association will also be more quickly and effectively organized in Chicago because of the continuance of Judge Mack's popular influence. But greater even than the service thus to be rendered is that of the example set by the judge in standing by what most needs to be done irrespective of the consequences of his refusal of a higher position upon his personal or professional advancement.

The elevation of Judge Orrin N. Carter to the Supreme Court of Illinois demonstrates that advancement seeks the man who renders such conspicuous public service as he did in the county court. Far beyond the judicial requirements of that position is the service which he has rendered the public institutions and the needy people they serve, whose claims upon him as a private citizen were more clearly and largely recognized through the insight to their importance and their

needs which he got by his official contact with them. He had thus invested his judgeship with more practical importance than is associated with any judicial position in the mind of the masses of his fellow citizens.

When at last the Illinois State Board of Charities was conceded to have in fact the right it has in law to name its own secretary, it demonstrated the justice as well as the good public policy upon the governor's part of letting it have its own choice. Its selection of William C. Graves for that important office is singularly happy. It proves that a volunteer board with exceptionally high ideals for state institutions, is capable of making an almost ideally practical appointment. With academic discipline, Mr. Graves combines a varied experience in practical affairs. For a dozen years as a journalist he served in almost every capacity that a newspaper office requires, including staff correspondence from a state legislature. The secretaryship of the Cook county board of commissioners during the radical reconstruction of the great county institutions at Dunning and in Chicago gave him a varied experience in the administration of public institutions such as few men have a chance to acquire. Associated also with park commissions and various advisory boards he gained further knowledge of public bodies and their ways of doing public business. Identified with the state and national charity conferences and for a time with a great public service corporation as secretary to its president, he thus rounded out on all sides his preparatory service and training. His appointment, it is needless to say, has absolutely no political significance except in emphasizing the fact that the administration which serves the state the best serves itself the most.

The choice of Dr. Vaclav H. Podstata to be superintendent of the state asylum at Elgin is another instance of appointment only for personal and professional merit and the public good. It was made solely on the ground of his rare success in administering the Cook county infirmary for the poor and the hospitals for the in-

sane epileptic and tuberculous patients at Dunning, together with his record of excellent service at the Kankakee insane asylum. When it was suggested to the president of the Cook county board of commissioners that it would be advisable to appoint a "layman," or in other words a politician, to succeed him at Dunning the suggestion was not considered as a possibility after the demonstrated success of the medical superintendents, supported by the able and efficient business manager who has so long and so well served these institutions.

Instead of calling a junta of politicians to consider the party interests involved in the appointment, the president of the county board took into council a little group of eminent physicians and others known to have an intelligent interest in the public care of the dependent and defective classes, and upon their advice offered the superintendency of the Dunning institution to Dr. O. C. Willhite. He was unanimously preferred by these advisors because of a high administrative ability and a professional capacity tested by varied experience. For three years he served at the Kankakee insane asylum and for an equal term at the Iowa institution for feeble minded and at the Cherokee hospital for the insane of the same state. He comes to Dunning from the superintendency of the state hospital for inebriates at Knoxville, Iowa. He is said to be so favorably situated there that only the harder job and the larger public service awaiting him at Dunning tempt him to take this more exacting position. There is a rising pride among those in positions of responsibility and exaction, not only to justify their appointment but even to do more than the previously accepted standards of their office require. More than that, there is a genuine civic patriotism abroad in the land in making appointments to public service and in fulfilling the duties of office in strict loyalty to the public good. If there is personal or party motive in so doing it is the legitimate one which rightly reasons that he serves his party or himself most who serves the public best.

The Trend of the Park Movement

G. A. Parker

[It is a combination of a singularly broad social view with practical experience in park management which gives Mr. Parker his unique position in the park movement. He served as head gardener at Vassar College and then of the Old Colony Railroad before entering into public park work in Cleveland, Boston and in Hartford, where he is now superintendent of parks. He has been called to other cities, but feels that here is a vantage ground from which to contribute constructively to the development of the park idea. His office is a veritable work shop.]

It takes more than a house, no matter how skillfully designed, costly or well finished to make a home. It takes more than a piece of land no matter how beautiful and well designed or elaborately planted, for a park to fulfill its function in municipal life.

Primarily a park is not a lot of open land within a city, even though there can be no park without such land. It is the people who use the land that constitute the park and not the land they use; just as it is the people who live in a city that determine the city and not the buildings and streets which are located there. New York would not be a city if every human being were to leave it, even though all the buildings and everything else were left intact; it would be but a city corpse. Not that a city can exist without buildings, but I want to bring out the fact that buildings are the shell and the people are the city. And so, a park unless used, is a dead thing, and not in the primary sense, a park at all, no matter how divinely beautiful it may have been. If this was not true, then before there were any cities, the world was one great park and most of it still remains so.

A park is land within a city where people may have the freedom and influences of the country; where a person can go and have such influences soak into him. And only so far as it can thus be used, does it differ from other vacant, unused, unprofitable land which may be within a city. Of course, unused land set aside for park purposes has a prospective value as parks, the same as vacant lots have prospective value to their owners.

I have written this to begin with, for I wanted to establish another view point of parks than by the acre. For several

years I have tried earnestly to solve the park problem by acreage and what the acres might provide. To illustrate:

Wherever marriage has united two lives as one and little ones are growing up, there is the home, let the roof which covers them or the walls that surround them be what they may. The uniting love is the essential factor of the home; comfortable and beautiful surroundings are only pleasant adjuncts. So, wherever people find within a city limit country freedom and country influences, there is the park; although the more truly beautiful those spots are, so much the better is it for the people. But, the scenes themselves, however beautiful, do not make the park; any more than a house, however grand, makes the home.

Apparently that which is the strongest attraction for the great mass of people is other people and the outdoor spots most frequented are the streets, for there they meet the most people. At the same time persons usually have a purpose for going on the street, which is an incentive for being there. But the street is purely urban in all its appurtenances with an artificial floor and artificial sides. Overhead there is the sky, ever beautiful, ever changing, but one seldom sees above the second floor without raising his head; and so anything to attract notice above that height must be more or less spectacular. Now, if urban scenes and influences can make that which is best of the human, body, mind and heart, then the whole problem might be solved by widening our streets into convenient promenades. But experience has proved in the past, and it is probable that it will remain true in the future, that purely urban conditions cannot produce that which is best in mankind; that only through country free-

dom and country influences can the best in man be developed. Therefore, parks are absolutely essential to city life, if those who are born and bred in the city are to be kept free from degenerating.

My preface is long, but it has become so unsatisfactory to me to speak of municipal parks as consisting of so many acres with such a ratio to area, population or valuation and costing such an amount and "having such a rank when compared with other cities," that I want to set up another yard stick to measure them by, especially as I believe it is a better one. Whether we are doing more or less than some other city is not of so much importance as is, what the parks are actually doing for the people they serve. It is much better, it seems to me, to range up our parks as measured by the people who use them, rather than by acres and cost.

As we look back over the park work, we see that certain tendencies have swept the country like an epidemic; except that they were for good, while epidemics are supposed to be evil. In the 50's of the last century came the demand for open spaces, the so-called lungs or breathing spots of urban life, and under its influence many of the large parks of our great cities came into existence. Then, in the 70's with the development of Central Park in New York and Prospect Park in Brooklyn came the desire for scenic parks of naturalistic effects. In the 80's the project of connecting individual parks with the system of parkways and boulevards was all in vogue. In the 90's, following the lead of the Metropolitan Park system of Boston, the outlying, country, parklike reservations became the leading innovation. And just now we are in the midst of the playground movement. We hear much about organized play, directed play, systematic and scientific play and the children are in the forefront in the thoughts of those interested in municipal park development. It is well that they are, for their needs are great and the future of our cities at stake. But the impression has come to me that too much direction, organization and system may defeat, in part at least, the very object of the movement and turn playing into a task. The need of organization is very

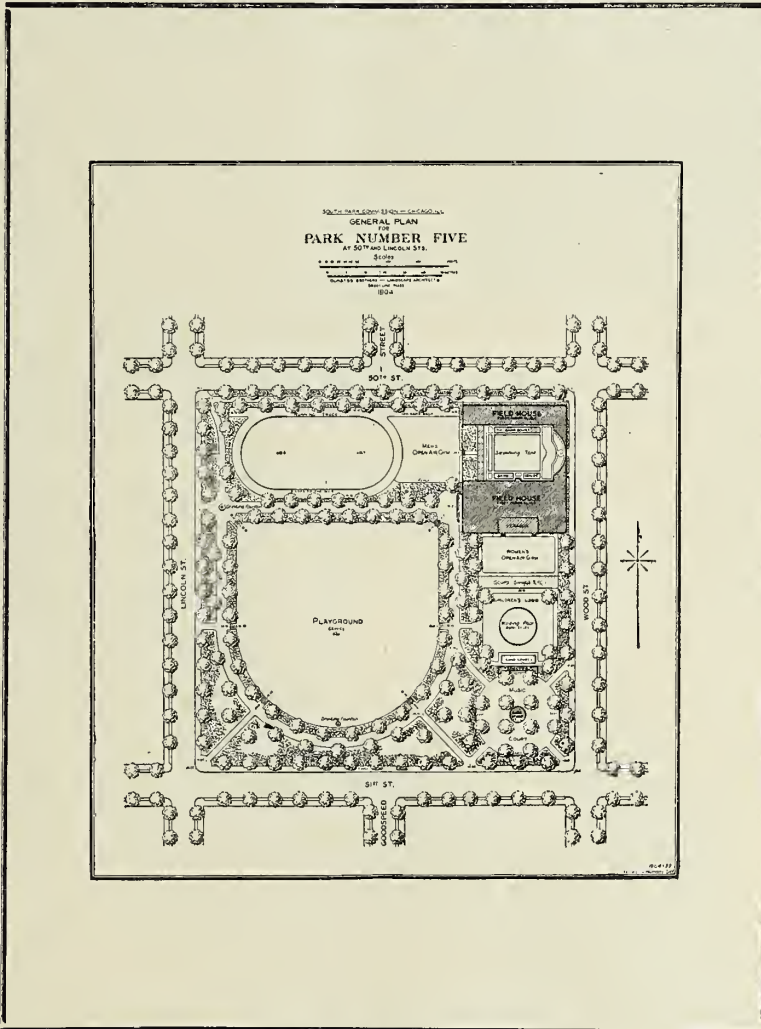
apparent. It may be that the freedom of the country can never come to the city child. Perhaps I can illustrate what I mean by relating an incident of last summer.

After a well planned, successful field day where several hundred children apparently enjoyed themselves hugely and the teachers certainly had a strenuous time, the park was nearly deserted and I sat down on one of the benches to mull over the events of the day. I could not see a flaw in the arrangements, or where it had not been a success. Everything seemed logical and correct in theory and results; and yet I had the feeling that something had been wanting. Slowly my attention was attracted to a dozen children, under ten years old, who had escaped from the procession as it marched off the park and had returned to pick flowers and to play by themselves. They were in the midst of a game of cross tag. There was earnestness and willingness and freedom and higher tension of action and much more display of spirit and muscle than had been shown during the day. They acted like a lot of school children just out of school or freed from a task. Soon they all stopped and went to picking flowers. To my great relief there was not a caretaker or patrolman about, for I wanted to see what they would do if left entirely to themselves. I supposed that I was unnoticed or if noticed, was unknown. For nearly an hour they had a royal good time and apparently went home the happiest children on the park that day. The next day one of the mothers came to apologize for her child's taking the flowers. And,—alas for my notion that I was unseen and unknown,—she said, "Yes, Mary said it was all right for her to pick the flowers for the superintendent was there and he did not stop us." Then she quoted what the child had said, a phrase I wish I could remember for it was worth repeating and it told the story better than I can, but it meant that they had had such a good time all by themselves and also had some "real play."

Then again, I mullied over the scenes of the day before and wondered if too much direction did not weaken the spirit

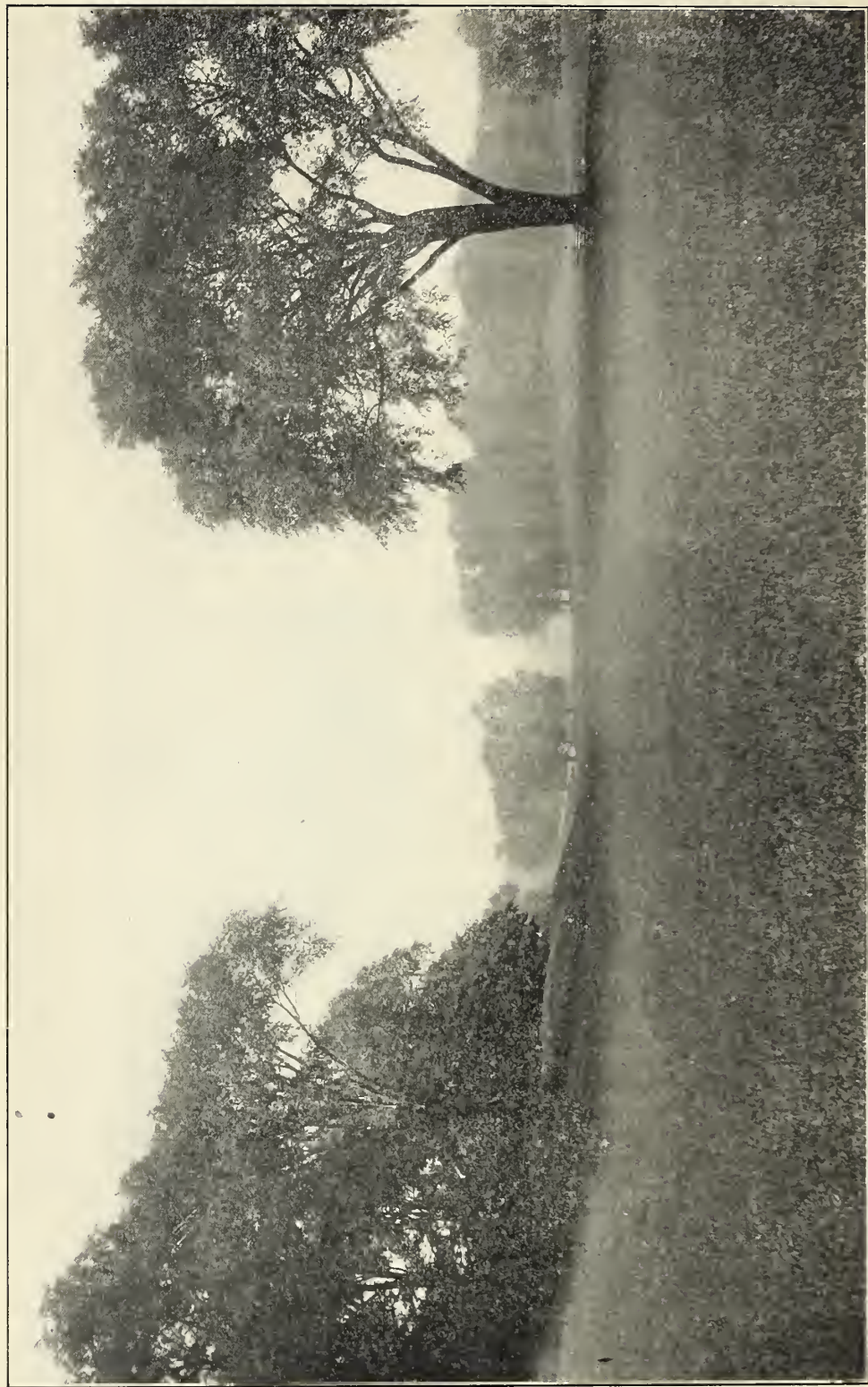
of the child, or maybe prevented that freedom of action which perhaps must be had to develop that individuality of character which makes the best of whatever there may be within us. And yet,

the day before had been so successful, so perfect in all its details, why should I feel there was something lacking, and what did that little girl mean by the words "real play."



The Modern Park-Playground.

One of a series of playgrounds for Chicago, Illinois. A typical plan to illustrate in a general way the features that are called for in a modern city playground and the manner in which the ground may be skillfully divided so as to make the best possible use of the space available. The design for every playground would normally be different, for no two sites nor the physical and human conditions surrounding them are exactly the same.



Prospect Park, Brooklyn. This picture illustrates the open parklike aspect of the Long Meadow, the chief feature of the design. The extent of this meadow, about 50 acres, is enough to give it a sense of breadth. The surrounding groves are freely used for picnic parties.

The Normal Requirements of American Towns and Cities in Respect to Public Open Spaces

F. L. Olmsted, Jr. and John Nolen

[Mr. Olmsted is a fellow of the American Society of Landscape Architects and is the Charles Eliot Professor of Landscape Architecture at Harvard University. He is a son of the elder Olmsted whose genius planned Central, Riverside and Prospect Parks in New York, and also created the first city park system, namely that of Boston. Mr. Olmsted is a member of the distinguished commission appointed by President Roosevelt for the beautification of the District of Columbia, and has been retained as an expert in connection with much of the public park work of this country.]

[Mr. Nolen is a member of the American Society of Landscape Architects. His writings and lectures upon municipal improvement, landscape design and related topics have gone far to awaken intelligent interest in these subjects throughout the country. His public work has been largely along lines discussed in this paper.]

At the present time public spirited people in this country appreciate the value of open spaces in towns and cities. They realize that such areas are not only desirable but increasingly necessary in order that opportunity for exercise and for the enjoyment of outdoor beauty may be more generally provided. In a vague way they approve of a large increase in the number of playgrounds and parks. But few even in the more enlightened communities seem yet to understand that these open spaces are of great variety, that they are or should be selected and designed to serve radically different purposes and that the failure to understand this principle and to keep it constantly in mind leads to gross waste and inefficiency in our public grounds.

In few other phases of private or public life is there so generally a lack of clear thinking. This is an important matter for American municipalities to consider, for failure to select sites discriminatingly, to design them for specific purposes and to confine their use to those purposes, is to waste the public funds and to lose to a considerable degree the benefits that might otherwise accrue to the people.

It is, of course, true in this as in most other matters that there is some overlapping. The purposes are not absolutely distinct and most public grounds are serviceable in a number of different ways. But it is equally true that the greatest efficiency here as elsewhere depends upon

clear and intelligent differentiation, upon a recognition that the ends to be served are different and that therefore different means must usually be employed to meet them.

This article aims only to outline in a general way the more important types of public grounds. For the sake of convenience and clearness they will be considered under six heads:

- (1) Streets, boulevards and parkways;
- (2) City squares, commons and public gardens;
- (3) Playgrounds—
 - (a) For little children;
 - (b) For children of the school age;
 - (c) For older boys and men and for girls and women;
- (4) Small or neighborhood parks;
- (5) Large parks;
- (6) Great outlying reservations.

These six divisions may be said to represent the normal requirements of large cities. For somewhat smaller places the outlying reservations and in some cases even the large parks might not be necessary. In such matters there can be no absolute rule. No system of public grounds could possibly be devised that would fit any and every community, for no two communities are alike. They represent infinite variations arising from differing physical, historical and social conditions. Success in any particular case will depend, therefore, not only upon a recognition of the different types of



Paris, Avenue des Champs Élysées: a formal example of a main artery of travel. Note separate provision of pleasure drive, shady promenades and side roads for traffic and house frontage.

public grounds but also upon an accurate and sympathetic estimate of the peculiar local conditions and local needs.

**I. Streets,
Boulevards
and
Parkways.**

All communities, no matter what their size may be, need to regard the plan, character and appearance of their streets. To do this intelligently, they must consider the primary purpose that streets in various parts of the town or city are to serve. For example, streets in the business sections would not normally be the same in width or treatment as in residential sections. Again, thoroughfares making through connections from one part of the city to another or even to outlying towns, would be different in many essential ways from streets that are intended for merely local use. This division of the subject, therefore, is fundamental and of practically universal concern. And proper consideration of it should affect definitely the city plan.

Boulevards and parkways are agreeable promenades in themselves and serve usually as pleasant means of access to parks from other parts of the city or from one park to another. Boulevards are usually arranged formally with rows of shade trees and parallel ways for

those on foot and on wheels. The simplest type has a broad drive in the center with a walk on either side, separated from the drive by a belt of turf and always shaded by trees. Frequently two drive-ways are provided with a broad space between containing trees and turf and sometimes foot paths, bicycle paths, bridle paths or other conveniences; and often shrubs, flowers, statues and other decorations. In recent years some boulevards have been made to provide for electric car tracks upon a special turfed reservation with rows of trees, where the cars can attain high speed with little danger of collision with other vehicles. Such reservations are generally between two roadways, but in some suburban districts a double track is placed on either side of a single roadway between the curb and sidewalk.

A parkway so far as it can be discriminated from a boulevard, includes more breadth of turf or planted ground and also usually narrow passages of natural scenery of varying widths, giving it a somewhat park-like character and inducing a less formal treatment of the roads, paths and accessory features. Parkway are frequently laid out along streams so

as to include the natural beauty of brook or river scenery and to preserve the main surface water channels in public control, thus providing for the adequate and economical regulation of storm drainage and floods. The illustrations herewith given will help to make clear this division of the subject.

II. City Squares, Commons and Public Gardens. These are a most usual type of public recreation grounds and often the most open to the charge of ill-considered selection and design. An opinion prevails very generally that a city can not have too many "squares" or "breathing places" and if they are not built upon and are green with grass and trees they justify themselves. In a measure this is true and yet by taking thought these same areas may be made many times more serviceable. They are usually of small size and are found in the business as well as the residential sections of a city. Their principal functions are to furnish agreeable views for those passing by them or through them in the course of their daily business and to provide a pleasant resting place or promenade for the much smaller number who take the time to use them in this manner. On account of the almost constant passing through such

squares the best arrangement is to provide for reasonably direct and convenient paths along the lines most used. Where this is not done many of those who use the square are likely to be so irritated by the indirectness as to miss much of the pleasure they might otherwise receive. A formal plan of walks, either on straight lines or curved, is generally adopted for such squares and is well suited to the conditions and to the decorative treatment of the area, providing much more effectively than irregular plans for the numerous statues, fountains, and gay flower beds which have their most appropriate location in such places. Shade trees, either as a complete grove or in rows along the paths or grouped in some more complex plan, are almost essential features of such squares. A modification of this type of square is sometimes met with where the space, instead of being used for a short cut and for enjoyment from within, is designed primarily to present an agreeable picture to those passing upon the adjacent streets. When the area is very small and the passing is almost wholly along one side, this treatment is most effective, because where the only aim is a beautiful pictorial effect from a limited



Vondel Park, Amsterdam. A narrow parkway serving to extend the scenery of a large park toward the city to a main thoroughfare.



Riverway, Boston : A typical valley parkway maintaining a natural surface water channel. A railroad parallels the path at the right, but it is obscured by a mound of soil supporting a plantation.



Mt. Vernon Square, Baltimore, Maryland. A suggestive illustration of formal design well applied to a small open space in an American city.



Lafayette Square, Washington, D. C.



Charlesbank, Boston. The Sand Courts. Without doubt these are the most indispensable features in playgrounds intended for small children. The sand should be pure, white sea sand.

point of view better results can be obtained than when appearance must be reconciled with other uses of the land. Nevertheless, there are few cases in which a small square will not have a greater recreative value to the public if its pictorial aspect is somewhat sacrificed to such uses as resting and promenading. The illustrations here given of squares and public gardens will further enforce these points.

III. Play-grounds.

To no other form of public recreation grounds is so much attention now being directed as to playgrounds. An illustra-

tion of this fact is to be noted in the recent organization in Washington of the Playground Association of America. It has now come to be recognized that convenient provision for exercise in the open air is indispensable if we are to preserve health of body and mind. Indeed it is a matter of vital importance, calling more and more loudly for systematic municipal action as cities increase in size and density of population, as more and more people come to be engaged in confining occupations and as quick and cheap transportation

constantly reduces the amount of exercise which people take as an incident to their daily work. In a general way the imperative need for playgrounds is coming to be recognized especially as regards children whose development into healthy and useful members of the community depends quite as much upon physical as upon mental exercise.

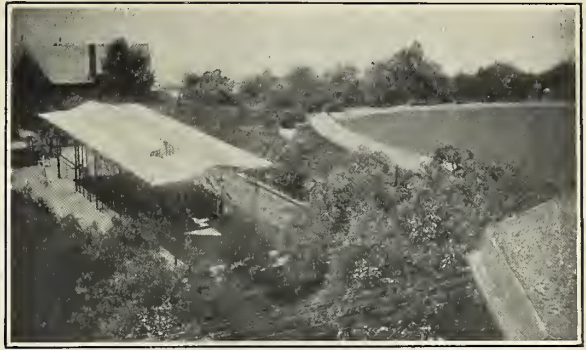
These playgrounds are of three classes. The first to be considered is for the smallest children. Whether in connection with school grounds or elsewhere, there should be in each neighborhood, a space not open to the hurly burly of the



Watertown, New York. Wading Pool. The definite provision of wading pools in playgrounds is comparatively recent. However, they have already proved themselves as popular as they are valuable.

larger children, where mothers may take little tots, mostly under the school age, to get quiet, out-of-door pleasure and exercise. A plain lawn, if well cared for, will stand their usage and is of the greatest value for them to play about upon. But for these youngsters even more than the older children it is needful to offer something to play with and nothing is more useful than a pile of clean sea sand. Its value is increased if water is near at hand to wade and dabble in. A small shallow basin in which they can play and paddle gives to hundreds of city children an amount of healthful pleasure that is cheaply bought at the price of setting apart such limited areas for their exclusive use.

But perhaps the most important playgrounds are for the children of the school age and these can best be arranged and used in connection with the schools. Of course many schools have playgrounds but these are seldom large enough, for as school buildings have grown in size to meet the increasing demand, playgrounds have generally been encroached upon instead of being correspondingly enlarged. If it is agreed that it is almost as important for the city to provide adequate playground accommodations as it is to provide school rooms, there is need of very greatly increasing the present playground areas. A few large playgrounds in remote places where land is cheap will not answer the purpose, which is to give opportunity for exercise and active play near the children's homes, and preferably next to the school, so that it can be used during the recesses as well as after hours. Bare earth or some kind of pavement is the only surface that will stand the concentrated and constant use to which such a playground should be put, but that is no reason for making it an absolute Sahara of desolation. Trees will grow in such an area if adequate pains are taken to supply them with a quantity of good soil under the hard surface and to give their roots artificially the water which that surface cuts off.



Charlesbank, Boston. The Women's Gymnasium. The roof affords protection from sun and rain and the heavy planting of trees and shrubs makes the exercise ground private.

Vines on the buildings and a hedge or narrow border of attractive flowering shrubs, reducing the playing areas by a very small percentage, would often make the place more attractive to the children and give them some of the recreative value of beauty, which is cheaply purchased even at the cost of a few square feet of additional land. Moreover it can often be secured by the ingenious use of corners and strips that would be otherwise wasted. In this way the playground may be made an attractive and serviceable place to others besides the children and might be used by the elders in certain hours when not needed by the children. The devotion of much detailed ingenuity to getting the best possible use out of the city's investment in playground land is a corollary to the importance of providing adequate playgrounds.

The third class of playgrounds is for the older boys and young men, and for girls and women. As the city grows there is a constantly decreasing inducement or even opportunity for taking in the form of play the exercise which many of them fail to get in their daily work. For them are needed out door gymnasias and places for athletic sports. Unfortunately many of these sports require considerable area in proportion to the numbers engaged in them and for these the grounds must generally be at a greater distance from the people's homes than is reasonable for the other playgrounds. Moreover, some of these needs are cared for by private enterprise through clubs



Charlesbank Gymnasium, Boston. The first carefully designed and completely equipped outdoor gymnasium in the United States. It provides a space 500 ft. by 150 ft. for the use of men and boys and 370 ft. by 150 ft. as an exercise ground for women and girls. Happily combined with the Gymnasium are a level promenade nearly half a mile in length overlooking deep water and grassy mounds shaded by trees for the free use of little children.

and associations, and so far as this can be done it becomes unnecessary for the city to burden itself with the duty; but there are and always will be many who lack the means or the organizing power to secure such grounds for themselves, and the city can better afford to act as their agent and supply them with attractive grounds than to have them use their surplus energy in ways less useful to themselves and to the community. Grounds of this class should include ball fields, running tracks, places for jumping,

vaulting, throwing the hammer and quoits, bowling and the like, and convenient accommodations for bathing and dressing. The grounds should be ample, accessible, thoroughly complete in their arrangement and well maintained.

Here, then, we have three kinds of exercise so distinct as to call for three several kinds of grounds differing radically in size, distribution and arrangement although the apparently specific name of "playground" might be properly applied to each. The illustrations of the



Cambridge Field, Cambridge, Massachusetts. A playground with six acres of gravelled area. Designed primarily for the athletic recreation and education of the city's boys of school age. It is of course especially adapted for baseball and other games requiring a large space.



Courtesy City Parks Assn., Philadelphia.
Hamilton Park, Chicago. This shows a Neighborhood Center building. The construction throughout is of concrete. The central part contains the assembly hall, refectory and clubrooms. Each wing contains a gymnasium with locker rooms and shower baths with plunge. One is exclusively for men, the other for women. The wading pool is of ample proportions, and nothing delights the youngster more than to splash around in it and sail toy boats.

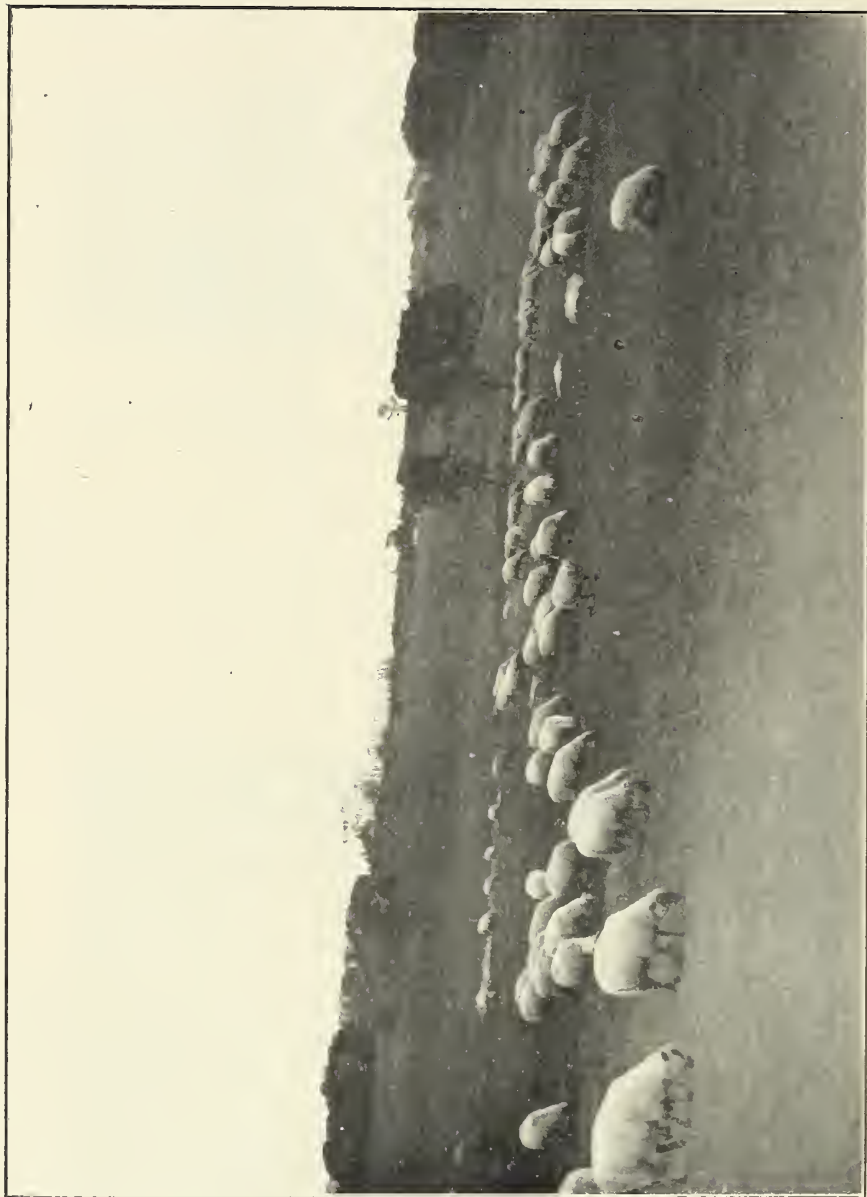
"Charlesbank," the first playground constructed in this country, and several of those in Chicago, will help to make clear the general character and usefulness of these grounds.

IV. Small or Neighborhood Parks. Under this heading may be included grounds of from 10 to 100 or even 200 acres in area. Except in extent such parks are

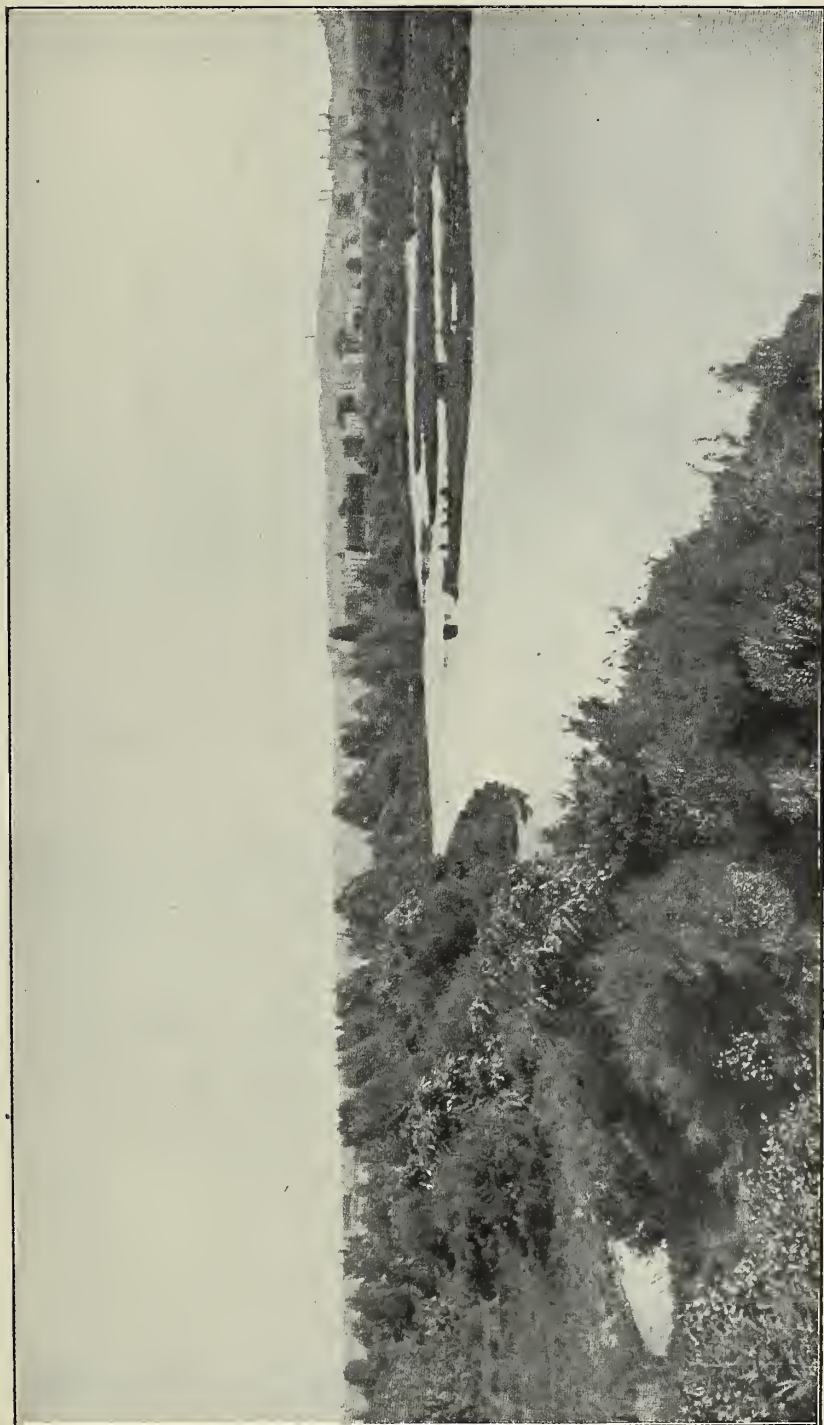
not essentially different in the purpose they serve and the character of their design from city squares and gardens. But this difference in extent affords an opportunity for a degree of breadth and freedom that is unobtainable in the smaller grounds. On the other hand the seclusion from the city and the broad and beautiful natural scenery that character-



Courtesy City Parks Assn., Philadelphia.
Mark White Square, Chicago. A typical neighborhood assembly hall. No charges made for its use, and only meetings of a political or religious nature are forbidden. Any person or group of people can secure it for an evening, provided some one else has not gotten ahead of them. Many social occasions and dances are given by neighborhood clubs.



Franklin Park, Boston. A typical country or rural park designed by Frederick Law Olmsted, Sr. The main purpose of this park is not amusement in the ordinary sense, but the relief from city sights and sounds that results from "pleasing rural scenery." (for complete account of Franklin Park see Mr. Nolen's article in *House and Garden* for July, 1900).



Back Bay Fens, Boston. Reclaimed flats converted into a landscape park in connection with solving an important surface drainage problem. A good illustration of the way a city may add legitimately to its income from real estate taxes.

ize the larger "rural" parks can not here be had. Yet small passages of interesting and agreeable scenery are often possible. This scenery can seldom be natural in appearance but it can often be quite beautiful, a certain elaboration, elegance and even magnificence taking the place of the more quiet and restful simplicity of the large park in a way that appeals very obviously to many people. And there is, therefore, more or less tendency to develop large parks in the same direction. It is unfortunate that it should be so, for these ends can be attained almost as well upon small parks as upon large, and therefore it is clearly a mistake to treat a large park in this style. It is because more cities have small parks of this elaborate and what might be called gardenesque character than have large and simple rural parks that many people have a perverted conception of what constitutes a park. These small parks are frequently used for the display of interesting and showy flowering shrubs and trees and make a feature of fountains, statues and other sculpture. In moderation such objects, together with terraces and other architectural work, are entirely appropriate and

desirable in parks of this class and add much to the effect of elegance and richness, for the enjoyment is closely related to that offered by architecture and decorative design and other pleasures forming a part of daily city life.

V. Large Parks.

The large park, or the rural or country park as it is now generally designated, comprises in most cases from two hundred to a thousand acres or more and is the chief feature of a city park system. It is seldom undertaken except by large cities or cities so rapidly growing that the need of such provision can be clearly foreseen. Its main object is to provide conveniently for that sort of recreation which is to be obtained by strolling or driving in a pleasant country district. There is no doubt that the enjoyment of beautiful natural scenery is to the majority of city dwellers one of the most refreshing antidotes for the wearing influences of city life. Where cities are of moderate size and are surrounded by a beautiful country district this enjoyment is readily accessible to the mass of the population and it has fortunately become more so in proportion to the size of



Riverside, Boston. A popular boating resort under the control of the Metropolitan Park Commission. It is located ten miles from the centre of the city and affords wholesome recreation to thousands annually.



Middlesex Fells, Boston. A tract of forest containing about 2000 acres under the charge of the Metropolitan Park Commission. It is surrounded by the towns of Stoneham, Woburn, Winchester, Medford, Malden and Melrose. This reservation like all the other holdings of the Commission, excepting Revere Beach, has so far as possible been kept in its natural state. The pond scenery is of unusual beauty.



Blue Hills Reservation, Boston. Comprises about 3000 acres. It is an admirable illustration of the sort of property that should be secured for the public before urban and suburban developments make such action practically impossible.

cities within the last twenty-five years through the development of electric car lines and the use of the bicycle and automobile; but this increased accessibility of the country has been in part offset by the growth of the cities during the same period and by the serious impairment of rural quiet in the suburban regions through the same cause,—namely, improved cheap transportation. It is necessary therefore, if the people of large cities are to have easy access to refreshing rural scenery that the municipality should withdraw from its taxable area a tract sufficiently large to provide some such scenery within its own limits. The cost, both directly in money and indirectly through interference with the street system and with the normal commercial development of the land, is necessarily very great, and only the purpose of providing beautiful scenery, of a kind thoroughly contrasting with city life and measurably sequestered from all its sights and sounds, can justify this heavy cost; because almost all the other purposes served in public recreation grounds can be met more economically and far more conveniently in smaller areas distributed throughout the city. Therefore,

the essential characteristic of a well designed and well managed park of this class is that all of the other numerous objects which it may serve are subordinated absolutely to the provision of scenery of a natural, placid and beautiful character.

Of course it is not enough merely to possess large areas of rural scenery, however perfect; they must be made available to large numbers of people, and it is the problem of making them available without destroying their most valuable quality that presents the greatest practical difficulty to the landscape architect. To turn the public loose upon them without restrictions and without the artificial appearance given by broad paths and roads, might be at the beginning delightful; but the marks of man's interference would soon be set upon the landscape far more universally and conspicuously by wear and tear than even by a number of constructed roads, and at the same time the inconvenience in getting about would interfere with the comfort of the visitor and his enjoyment of much of the landscape. Therefore, roads, paths, steps, bridges, seats, shelters, buildings and other constructions must nearly



Revere Beach, Boston. Under private control. Slatternly buildings encumbering the beach, and catering to a class which kept away the decent and orderly majority. Compare with illustration of Revere Beach under public control.



Revere Beach, Boston. Under public control. The shanties swept away, a broad promenade constructed, first class bathing facilities provided and good order maintained by an efficient park police. There is no more popular feature maintained under the control of the Boston Metropolitan Park Commission.

always be introduced. These can seldom be made to look like anything except the works of man and the disingenuous attempts occasionally made to palm some of them off as freaks of nature, in the way of curiously arranged ledges, grottoes, and what not, almost invariably seem so childish and affected as to be more obtrusive than a frank recognition of their man-made character. But on the other hand these things while treated frankly and simply as human constructions, may be made either relatively inconspicuous and subordinate elements of the landscape or may be elaborated into strikingly conspicuous features. In rural parks such conspicuousness is too heavy a price to pay even for great individual beauty in the features to which it may call attention, because it is essentially contradictory to the purpose of the parks. Architectural display is here to be deliberately eschewed. Of course beauty should be sought for in every element and detail of park construction but in the rural park it should be of the shy and modest sort which appears to be done not for its own sake, but solely for its contribution to the general effect. It should in no way invite public attention and admiration to itself.

Prospect Park, Brooklyn, containing five hundred and twenty-six acres, and Franklin Park, Boston, with about the same area, are useful illustrations of what large city parks may be. In neither, it is true, have the intentions of the designer been fully realized and yet the main idea,—the provision of beautiful, quiet scenery of the type that is called natural—has not been departed from. Therefore the "Long Meadow" of Prospect Park and the "Country Park" of Franklin Park can be studied with profit.

VI. Great Outlying Reservations.

As yet this class of reservations has not come at all generally into the possession of American municipalities. It consists of forests, beaches, meadows, mountains, lakes and rivers,—those natural features of universal interest and beauty that in one form or another surround so many of our cities. Such features are of

necessity great in extent but as they are almost always located at a considerable distance from the centers of population and are often ill-adapted to the requirements of trade and house building, they are not excessively costly. These reservations differ from "rural parks" in three particulars. They are usually located at a much greater distance from the centers of population, they are of larger area and as they are less used they require less in the way of artificial constructions. Their chief value is in the protection they afford for future generations; therefore, their preservation and possession by the public is of immense importance.

The most notable of such reservations in the United States are those in the possession of the Boston Metropolitan District including four forest reservations with a total area of over ten thousand acres also twenty-three miles of connecting parkway, seven or eight miles of sea-shore and thirty miles of river bank. But little more than a decade ago this system was non-existent and the invaluable reservations that comprise it to-day were the possession of private individuals, to do with as they would. The success of this system is an instructive and inspiring example of what can be achieved by enlightened, persistent and well-directed effort.

The conclusion that this paper aims to reach is that large towns and cities need not only to increase the number of their public grounds but more especially to increase their variety. A complex system is called for. More than an increase in expenditure, there must be a widening of aims, a finer discrimination, an expansion of the ideas of service and a more accurate estimate of local conditions and local needs. The size, character and location of sites for each particular purpose must be more carefully considered, as well as the nature of the design and its faithful maintenance. Now is the time to turn active attention to these matters for it is now that so many communities are moving to increase the number of their exercise and pleasure grounds. Energetic doing should be guided by clearer thinking.



The Playstead, Franklin Park, Boston.
Ornamental Baseball!

Play as Landscape

Joseph Lee

Vice-President Massachusetts Civic League

[So far as parks are concerned, Mr. Lee has been one of the most constructive forces, especially in New England, in making parks an institution for "the fostering of life," as he explains it in his "Constructive and Preventive Philanthropy." Like Henry Foreman of the South Park Commission, Chicago, he stands as aiming to make a park something for the people and not simply for carriages and automobiles. It is toward recreation centers, gardens, gymnasiums and baths that he has directed his energies in this connection. Mr. Lee has been back of every movement in Boston for the development of playgrounds and his writings, inimitable and spirited, have been coupled with persistent personal work.]

I believe that our parks could be used for play a great deal more than they are, and that this can be done in such a way as not to impair their value as parks but on the contrary to enhance it. I think that our failure to make more use of our parks in this way than we now do, with the accompanying atmosphere of "Keep Off the Grass," is something that we are rapidly outgrowing and that we cannot outgrow too soon. The old-fashioned American idea of a park was akin to that of the best parlor; a place that was to be kept for best but never to be used or looked at. The mottoes, anchors, flags, and "welcomes," worked in various colored flowers, corresponding to the "God Bless Our Home," completed the picture and the likeness. The American park is just emerging from that stage of civilization in which the ornamental is considered as identical with the useless, a belief which has its counterpart in the corresponding identification of the useful with

the hideous. To this way of looking at things there is nothing beautiful about a country farm, a ship under full sail; and one of our little sea-gull fishing smacks is not artistic because it carries a cargo of herring from the Bay of "Chal-ower" or of cod from "George's."

We can learn something from the tradition of the village green which, as the father of the New England common, must be, I think, the grandfather of the present-day American park, and which was certainly the place for sports and games for all ages and of all kinds. And any good Bostonian will tell you that the cause of the Revolutionary War was that General Gage tried to stop the boys from playing foot-ball on the Common.

Now in the nature of things, is children's play incompatible with landscape art? Those who think so ought to study the pictures of Claude Lorraine; or perhaps it is easier to go out into the next street or other place where there is no



The Charlesbank, Boston. Children are allowed on the grass between the women's and children's outdoor gymnasiums and do no harm.



Children's Gardens, Columbus Avenue Playground, Boston.

Boston Public Garden. The swings, stilts, and sand boxes in this playground are in a small space alongside a subway entrance.

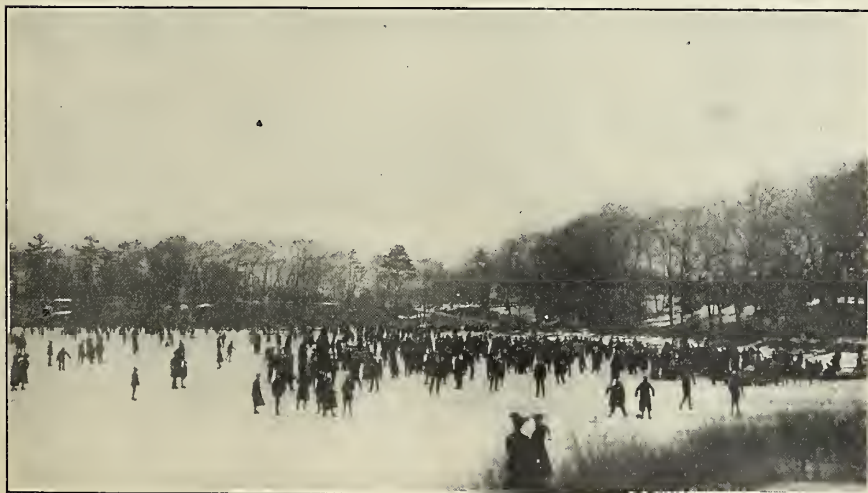




Tobogganing in Franklin Park, Boston.



Coasting on the Common.



Jamaica Pond, Boston. This pond is kept in condition for skating by the Park Department.

prohibitory policeman and watch the actual phenomenon. You know you like it. And you will not like it any the less on a footing of green grass, under a roof of overhanging trees, with the sun striking across on flowers and shrubs. These compositions are older than our cities, and the harmonies they are based on are of the eternal song of nature, sung since there first were children and grass and flowers.

The beauty of the city park will never in any case be the beauty of solitude; that attraction it cannot by any possibility have. The attraction which it actually will possess will on the contrary be largely of the opposite sort. The crowd, not only on the fashionable drive at Hyde Park or in the Tuilleries Gardens, but in every city park, comes largely to see the crowd. That is the sight best worth seeing. Many parks are now spending large sums for a collection of zoological specimens; for elephants and elk and antelopes and moose and monkeys; but the zoological specimen most interesting to man is man—especially in his earlier manifestations. Children are far more interesting than any zoological garden. The kindergarten platform on any playground is always surrounded by a crowd of grown men. In short, as my friend the humorist puts it, a kid is more fun than a goat or even a cage of monkeys.

It is true of course that there are certain limitations and certain incompatibilities. You can't allow baseball across your favorite lawn nor where it will endanger the lives of innocent people, and you cannot allow the making of mud pies in your flower beds. I want to suggest some specific ways, most of them illustrated at present in our Boston park system, in which play can be allowed on parks without interfering in any way, as I believe, with the artistic effect.

In general it may be said that the kinds of play that can best be combined with park purposes are the play of young children and the play of grown people. The most strenuous age of boys, and the most strenuous games, such as baseball and football, especially the former, are comparatively difficult to assimilate.

I. For Small Children

1. Children hurt grass very little. At Charlesbank (Boston) children under ten are allowed to run all over the grass. The space is small, not more than an acre or so, and immediately adjoins our most crowded ward; and yet it is only once in a while that the grass has to be allowed a breathing spell in order to recuperate. "Keep Off the Grass" signs have been abolished in all civilized park systems.

2. Children do no harm to the paths by digging in them, and they should always be allowed to do so except in crowded places; and there should be benches where mothers and nurses can watch them doing it. Here again I can cite our Boston experience. They dig in the paths in the Public Garden and down the middle of Commonwealth Avenue, and nobody ever objects.

3. Broad paths can be used for hopscotch and hill-dill and prisoners' base without harm in most places.

Wherever there are steps, it is a good thing, without telling the architect what your real reason is, to have him put a slanting stone at the side. The best all-the-year-round coast in Boston is on the steps on the Common, going down beside the Shaw Monument to the Beacon Street Mall opposite the State House. I noticed a perpetual stream of children there on Memorial Day. Also steep banks are good. They are so convenient to roll down. A small girl of my acquaintance found it best to get inside of a barrel for this purpose, but I suppose rubbish barrels are too big.

4. Many parks would be improved for the purposes of grown people, especially those who have children to take care of and amuse, if there were donkeys for children to ride on, as there used to be in one of the parks in San Francisco. It is only the donkeys who object.

5. Children's gardens—an individual garden for each child—could be put round the edges next the fence in many parks without hurting their aesthetic effect. The six inches next the fence can be taken special care of by the teacher,

so that the vines shall grow well. Those children who do especially well can as a promotion be put in charge of their own piece of fence. A child needs a garden of only about 20 square feet. This, allowing a little space for paths, gives you 2,000 children to the acre. Out of this the child will get as much education in a given time as he will out of the space allotted to him in the public school; the best age for this purpose being, according to a great many teachers whom I

cluding sand boxes and swings, without doing harm. We have one on the Public Garden in Boston.

II. For Grown People

1. Tennis and golf are among the ornamental sports, though the latter may be somewhat in the nature of rifle practice as regards safety. The fifty odd tennis grounds in what I am sorry to say has been called by the unjustifiably English name of "Ellicottdale" in Franklin Park,



Ellicottdale, Franklin Park, Boston, showing the landscape value of tennis courts.

have asked, from eleven to thirteen inclusive.

I see that in my zeal for the gardens I have wandered from my subject of showing that the gardens and the children are good as landscape features. It will depend, of course on the park. But their flowers will be nearly as pretty as those of the hired gardener, and far more interesting. And then their vines will hide the fence, and that is almost always worth something.

6. You can have in many parks a regular playground for little children, in-

all used by young men and girls playing there every afternoon in the spring and summer, certainly add as much to the beauty of the park as anything else it contains.

2. Coasting and tobogganing do not hurt the grass, and we have them on several of our parks and larger grassy playgrounds. Skating is much the most economical use per square foot to which an acre of ground can be put, if the number of persons using it and their degree of enjoyment is a test. There are many parks and squares that could be advan-

tageously flooded in winter for this purpose. Untrodden snow is a beautiful thing—under some conditions—but when it is covered with soot and cinders and bits of orange peel, as it often is in the city park, particularly in the latter part of the winter, it ceases to be a joy forever. There is no use in trying to treat a place in the middle of a crowded city on the wilderness motif. It is going to be smudged and smirched in any case. The thing to do is to frankly recognize that its beauty, if it is to have any, must be civic beauty, and that civic beauty is not incompatible with civic use.

3. All ponds and streams should be supplied with boats. We can all remember what a feature the gondolas were at the World's Fair in Chicago.

4. Even regular athletics—the baseball and football, that I have said were for park purposes the most indigestible forms of play, and the rest—can be not merely tolerated but made aesthetic use of. With plenty of room left for big trees, throwing their shadows across the field in the afternoon, with the proper coloring of back-stops, and the keeping of the fields in neat condition, ball games can be very ornamental. The noise that seems a ne-

cessary accompaniment is perhaps the most difficult item to live down.

It has been well said that children were left out in the planning of our cities. It does not seem to me that they ought also to be left out in the planning of our parks. Children are not necessarily a nuisance. If in any particular place they are a nuisance, it may be the fault of the children or it may be the fault of the place. Parks that are made of so delicate a constitution that they are destroyed or seriously injured by children's play are too delicate for this world, certainly for the inhabited parts of it. Parks are, as I understand it, places for recreation, that is for play. If they are not fitted for those members of the race in whom the instinct of play still controls, they do not seem to me to be peculiarly adapted to their purpose. They are in that case something like a ball room in which it is not safe to dance. I know that there are officials and aesthetes who take the anti-children view of all aesthetic matters. They remind me of the worthy official of the War Department who said to Mr. Roosevelt at the beginning of the Spanish War: "This department was running all right until you brought your damned war along."



Courtesy Metropolitan Parks Association.

Hamilton Fish Park New York. In hot weather the parks are thrown open to the people of the tenements for the night. The crowds are so great that all the available grass space is occupied and late comers are forced to occupy such positions as shown in this flash-light picture.

The Central Games Committee of Germany

Henry S. Curtis

[Dr. Curtis is now Supervisor of Playgrounds of Washington, D. C. For three years he was general director of playgrounds under the Board of Education, New York, and by a happy circumstance was influential in the starting of playgrounds and recreation centers in London. An article by him was published in Harper's Magazine in an issue in which an instalment of "Lady Rose's Daughter" appeared. Coming to the notice of the author, Mrs. Humphry Ward, she began an agitation along similar lines in England. Dr Curtis is the founder of the new Playground Association of America.]

I use this title for an organization which is somewhat too loose, perhaps, to be called an association, but which has had for its purpose the promotion of games throughout Germany for the last thirteen years.

The new interest in play and games, now so evident in Germany, began with the Franco-Prussian war which emphasized anew the need of the people for a vigorous soldiery. From that time on there has been a more or less systematic effort to promote the games of the people. This led in 1889 to the holding of the first Play Congress. In 1892, mainly through the efforts of E. Von Schenkendorff of Goerlitz this "Central Committee for the Promotion of Games," was organized. Von Schenkendorff has remained from the beginning at the head of the movement and has probably done more for the promotion of play throughout Germany and the world than any other one man.

The central committee consisted of many government officials, many prominent physical trainers, educators, and people who were interested in civic movements. Through its influence a commission was sent to England in 1892 to investigate the games of the English public schools and report to the emperor. They spent some three or four weeks in visiting Rugby, Eton and Harrow and the others, and came back full of enthusiasm for the English system. Their report was officially circulated through the aid of the emperor and the minister of education to all of the schools of Germany. As a result, a systematic effort was made for the introduction of foot ball, cricket and tennis into the German schools. Tennis is now played everywhere in Germany,

and many of the schools have their own tennis courts; football and cricket have not made so rapid progress, but are gaining year by year and are coming to take a larger and larger place among the German sports.

With the usual thoroughness of Germans the central committee was not satisfied with introducing these sports, but set to work to form a curriculum of games which should begin at the kindergarten and run through the elementary schools, thus carrying on the system of Froebel as far as the high school. This plan has been regularly introduced into many of the German schools as a part of the regular work. In Heidelberg in 1902, I found that in the three days' examination an entire day was given to an examination in games.

Going along with this introduction of play has come a movement for shorter hours in the school, so that to-day the children under eight are dismissed at 11 o'clock; and children under ten at 12; thus giving an opportunity for play which the long hours that once prevailed did not permit of. There are also three hours a week of gymnastics throughout the lower grades, which under the law must be taken in the open air whenever the weather is pleasant, and much of this time is also devoted to play.

In order to train the teachers to take up the work of this curriculum of games, normal schools of play have been held in four or five different cities in Germany every summer for the last ten or twelve years, and more than 7,000 teachers have taken the training. The work has been under the direction of the Central Games Committee and has been carried on by its members. The fee for the teachers

taking the course has usually been four or five marks; but, as this includes subscription to the *Jahrbuch für Volk und Jugendspiel*, and other publications, which in themselves cost six marks, the fee is really a negative quantity.

This *Jahrbuch*, the official organ of the committee, was begun in 1892 with E. Von Schenkendorff and Prof. Schmidt as editors. It is devoted entirely to the interests of play, and has now grown to a volume of about 300 pages, by far the most thorough and complete treatment of the news and science of the subject that is to be found anywhere.

Since the first play congress in 1889, five others have been held; I have as yet seen no account of the last one which was held in 1905; but the one in 1902 which was held in Neuremberg was a most interesting affair. At this congress perhaps the most notable thing was the exhibition of games. More than 8,000 children took part, on a broad meadow, just outside of the city. The first half hour of the morning was given over to the girls and 67 classes from the Volksschulen played 67 different games from their own curriculum at the same time. At the end of half an hour the girls filed off and were replaced by 67 classes of boys who played an equal number of games from their curriculum. Later the field was given over to the pupils from the higher schools, and there were 14 games of foot-ball going on at the same time. These play congresses have had a great influence on the promotion of the movement because they have been so generally reported in the magazines and newspapers, and have in this way aroused much interest throughout the country.

Another feature which has been revived of late is the play festival which is coming to be an annual feature in many of

the large German cities. This means a day which is set aside for athletics, sports and games. It is a city holiday, and children from the schools and the people themselves take part very extensively. The prizes which are given out are usually a crown of oak leaves to the winner, and sometimes an elaborately decorated diploma. In the evening there is generally a concert and dance.

As a setting to this national play movement, there are a number of types of playgrounds in Germany which are of interest to Americans inasmuch as the playground movement in America began in the sand gardens of Berlin. These sand gardens are very small affairs and consist merely of loads of common sand which are dumped down in some shady place for the children to play in. Sometimes small trays are provided and sometimes there are none. There are no care-takers, and the nurses and mothers simply come with the babies and sit around on benches while the children play.

Nearly all of the larger beer gardens and concert gardens in the German cities are also provided with playgrounds which usually have a pretty full equipment of swings, see-saws etc., together with a more or less complete outdoor gymnasium.

But the German ideal of what a playground should be is what they call a *Waldspielplatz* or forest playground, by which is meant a playground which is surrounded by woods. This usually can be secured in a city only by planting the trees, and, of course, it takes years for it to reach perfection, but when

once reached there can be no question but that it is the most delightful playground that can be secured. The trees shut out the sound and dust and give it all the attractiveness of a playground in the country.



Why playgrounds are necessary.
An East Side New York Street.



Slav Emigration at Its Source

Emily Greene Balch

VI.--Emigration from Croatia

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This is the second part of the sixth in a series of articles giving some of the results of Miss Balch's studies in Austria-Hungary. Previous installments appeared in the issues of January 6, February 3, March 3, April 7, May 5 and June 2.

Part Second

A typical Croatian house of the poorer sort is quite pretty with its steep shingled roof and white washed or stuccoed sides. Very commonly there is no chimney and the little trap door in the roof is kept closed during the winter, so that till spring the smoke has no exit. This is not so bad as it sounds, as the fire is often on a stone hearth in the centre of the house while to the right and left are built rooms which are really more like little dwellings or boxes built inside the house. The smoke rolls through the space above the planking which ceils these, and this part of the building will be all crusted with the black shiny deposit of the soot while the living room will be clear of it. This may be heated with a stove of unglazed tiles fed from outside the room through an opening in the wall and, like all European stoves of this type, gives no direct fire heat and no ventilation but radiates warmth from its own surface. Such a stove is heated like a Dutch oven with a brisk fire quickly burned out and usually made only once a day. These Croatian stoves are often made of what looks like a series of unglazed flower pots embedded, empty, in a mass of clay, mouths out. This pigeon-holed exterior gives a great extent of radiating surface, which is the prime object in all stoves on this principle, and will sometimes give out warmth for three days without needing to be re-heated. Around the stove are rails for drying wet clothes.

The family sleep probably in one room, occasionally on straw covered with the curious Croatian blankets which are woven so as to be almost as shaggy as the original sheep and colored in bright angular patterns.

The windows are apt to be small. We heard of people having been burned up because they could not get out through the windows when the house was on fire and the doorway cut off. But this defect is not confined to Croatia. It was among the Slovaks that a priest told us that he preached against windows "so small that it made an eclipse of the sun if a hen flew in," a figure of speech suggestive in more ways than one. It was in Galicia that a woman pointed out to us a small single pane fixed in the wall to the east so that it might be possible to see the sun rise and know when to get up and explained to us that there was no window to the north because the north is evil.

The cattle are often accommodated under the same roof with the family, either on the same level, only separated by a partition, or underneath in a sort of basement stall.

I frequently heard, and not alone in Croatia, that families had animals living with them more sociably than this, as the Irish used to have both at home and in America, but I never saw a case—barring, indeed, hens straying in and out and once some small pigs who seemed to have the run of the house.



Bishop Strossmayer, the Croatian Meeaeas, patriot and saint.

The poor cows as we saw them emerging after their long winter into the spring sunshine were pitiable objects with the dirt caked on their flanks, so as to tear the flesh and make sores. One official told us of his efforts to get the people to bring their cattle to market clean.

Except in this instance of neglect I have never seen or heard anything in Europe or America to suggest other than kind treatment of animals by Slavs of any nationality; neither do I remember ever seeing a child abused.

In the poor western district the peasants, though economical, are said to live much better than the inhabitants of the

richer eastern counties. Polenta (corn meal mush) is much eaten, sometimes with sauer-kraut. But there is plenty of meat too. No family is too poor to kill a pig at Christmas which will give meat for three months. In spring there are lambs. The sheep's milk cheese is excellent, though, owing to lack of facilities, it is not an article of export as it is among the Slovaks.

Marriage Customs.

The marriage customs are interesting. A girl is expected, at least in certain regions, to bring a dowry including at the very least a chest and a complete outfit from cap



Croatian peasants from Agram.

to shoes for the bridegroom as well as for herself. Among the Bulgarians, I am told, this is also the way and the little girl begins on her knitting as soon as she can be taught to hold the needles, for she must have ready stockings for herself and her future husband enough to last both their lives. The Croatian woman is always knitting as she minds her cattle or goes about her business. The men wear big knit garments such as we call sweaters and heavy knit socks with a sort of plaid pattern about the ankle.

The man need bring no property to the marriage and consequently the birth of a boy whose marriage will enrich the family is far more desired than that of a girl who must be portioned off. A girl who is poor cannot hope to get married.

This is in striking contrast to the custom on the coast where a girl marries without a dowry—only she must have her personal ornaments (necklace of coins and what not). Without this no girl can look for a lover, but other property is not essential.

When a marriage is to be discussed representatives of the two sides come together, generally the girl's parents and two or three people acting for the man, very often including a brother, uncle or aunt. The man and his health are discussed but his family is a question a hundred times more important. What sort of people are they? Does his father beat his mother? What is his own relation to his brother, his sister? Is his married brother a good husband? (and,

from the other side—Is the girl's married sister a good wife?) The inquiry may last two or three days or even weeks. The agreement is made simply by passing the word *dobro* (good). The parents then have a meeting at church or elsewhere. After this the next step is taken; the representatives of the two sides come formally together, an hour or so later comes the prospective bridegroom. He gives an apple to the girl and she gives him a handkerchief. In songs and so forth a girl is often likened to an apple.

The customs which accompany the celebration of the marriage itself are extremely elaborate and I have not succeeded in getting a full account of them though such have been published. A marriage speech which is handed down by verbal memory takes up eight or ten printed pages. A scholar would not believe that this was genuine till he found a peasant who convinced him by reciting it entire while he held the book.

Agram. To write of Croatia and not speak of Agram or more properly Zagreb would be to give Hamlet with Hamlet left out.

It is a little city with only some fifty-three thousand inhabitants but it is a capital in the fullest sense of the word.

On the hill is what remains of the ancient town with the residence of the Ban or governor and curious relics of the barbarities following a peasant revolt in medieval times. Near by is the quarter which formerly was the domain of the cathedral chapter which of old waged bloody wars with the secular powers.

At the foot of the hill is the market place with Ban Jellachich on horseback forever waving his bronze sword in the direction of Hungary.

The market scene itself is like a bed of flowers, the prevailing colors being the white of linen garments and the orange scarlet of ribbons and necklaces and dangling garters, of aprons and embroidery.

But most surprising is the modern city with its boulevards and fine residence blocks and above all its wealth of institutions of culture. As one follows the thoroughfare north from the railroad sta-

tion the panorama is for some distance worthy of Paris or Vienna and in monumental character and absence of any jarring note utterly beyond comparison with anything in America. The Fine Arts Building for the yearly exhibitions stands by itself in the central park space of the boulevard; in the same situation on the next block is the Chemical Building of the University; then comes an open garden with statues; then the building of the South Slav Academy of Arts and Sciences founded by the patriot Bishop Strossmayer who died last year while we were in Croatia, full of years and of honor. This building houses a permanent collection of painting and sculpture, collected and given by him, an archeological museum, rooms for learned societies and so forth.

Further to the west is the public theatre where Croatian dramas are given throughout the season. Nearby is the University with its professional schools, another foundation of Bishop Strossmayer, and near this again the excellent Art and Industrial School due like much else to the far-seeing plans of the late minister of education, Mr. Krshnjavi ⁽¹⁾, a man who has known how to stimulate and bring forward a whole generation of young artists and authors. To get a little into this atmosphere was like going into the woods in spring when one feels the new life enfolding on every side.

Education in Croatia.

This brings us to the subject of education. The American figures show the illiteracy of Croatian immigrants to be high but perhaps not discreditably so under all the circumstances. It stands at 38%², while Ruthenians show 63, Lithuanians 57, Syrians 54, South Italians 56, Poles 40, and Japanese 39. More favorable showings are Roumanians 29, Slovaks 25, Hebrews 23, Greeks from Greece 23.

Politically Croatia is a so-called "autonomous kingdom," united to Hungary

¹In Slavic spelling the vowel preceding *l* or *n* is often omitted, though it is pronounced with a sound like *e* or *u*. Thus, *trn* (thorn) is pronounced *turn*. The Croatian singer Ternina writes her name so in deference to European custom; the original spelling is *Trnina*. This peculiarity is one reason why Slavic words so often look to us absolutely unpronounceable.

²The official Croatian figure for the whole country is 36, which I was told was too low.

in much the same way that Hungary is united to Austria. This means that in education Croatia has a free hand, though she chafes under what is felt to be the financial oppression of Hungary.

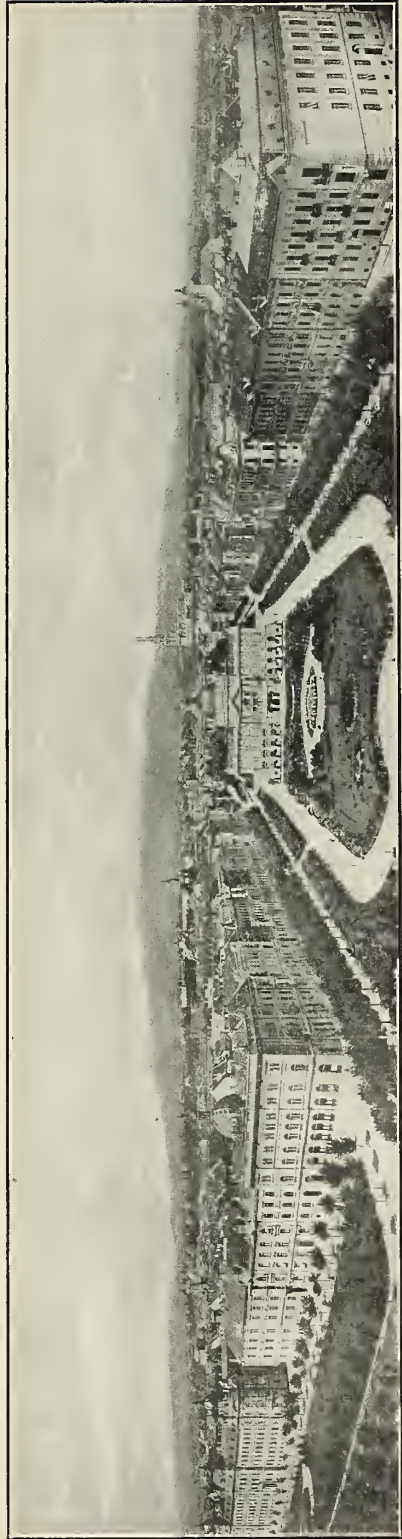
School attendance is compulsory from seven to twelve years of age, from twelve to fourteen so-called "repetition classes" are required. In one such class which I saw I judged that these hours of school were a hardship for poor little apprentice boys who came tired and fagged from the shoemaker's bench or the anvil. It ought to be a good thing to have the school period overlap into the working period, but in practice, under industry conducted for profit, all varieties of the half time system seem to work out disastrously.

The attempt to make school attendance universal is far from successful as yet. In Lika-Krbava I was told that nearly two-thirds of the children do not go to school mainly because their homes are scattered. The parents are said to be generally glad to send their boys to school but less concerned to have the girls learn. In this county there are 10,601 boys at school and 2,720 girls. Sometimes the children cannot go for lack of school room but in thirteen years this county has built thirty-five new schools and enlarged twenty more; so there is progress.

Very interesting was a project of Mr. Krshnjavi, the former minister of education already spoken of. He had picked from country schools, a few here and a few there, some fifty of the most promising pupils and sent them at government expense to a "gymnasium" to receive a good secondary education fitting them to enter the university. He was delighted at the progress that they were making when his retirement from office intervened and they were all sent back to their narrow peasant homes. They lacked only one year of graduation.

One local difficulty is the excessive number of holidays, as both Catholic and Greek orthodox festivals have to be observed. In some places the weekly market day is a holiday beside, but this is probably instead of Saturday.

A great advantage which the Croatians enjoy is that teaching alike in the elementary class and the university is in



Zagreb, the capital of Croatia; view in the new quarter.

the native language—the Croatian, which is probably the most beautiful or at least the most euphonious of the Slavic tongues, following the apparent law which gives to southern speech more open vowels, fewer combinations of consonants, and in general more liquidity and grace.

Health and Morality.

As regards health and morality I cannot say that I heard no criticism. Especially are the women of Slavonia, which is much richer than the western part of the county, said to be excessively addicted to luxury and beautiful clothes and in order to gratify these tastes, to limit their families and to conduct themselves loosely. It is hard to say how much such rumors amount to and they involve a district with which America has little direct concern.

But throughout Croatia, as in some other emigration districts, one hears a good deal of sporadic complaint of the injury to morality through emigration. Though cases where the husband has deserted his family appear to be rare, wives left alone at home sometimes behave badly and I have heard it said that child murder has increased.

The number of illegitimate births is apt to be high in countries where there are or have been barriers to legal marriage. Under the old communal family system there were considerable practical restrictions on marriage and the military regulations still forbid a man's marriage between eighteen and twenty-three unless he can prove that there is in the household no woman between sixteen and sixty. The military authorities visit the house to make sure that there really is no able-bodied woman available.

In spite of these facts the illegitimacy rate seems creditable at 70 per thousand births. This is worse than the group of countries including Ireland, Holland, England, Switzerland, Finland, Roumania and Italy, ranging from Ireland with 27 to Italy with 67, but better than Norway, Scotland, France, Germany and Sweden ranging from 72 to 106.

The most serious charge I heard made was that in certain villages the population is honey-combed with—as I under-

stand it—venereal disease, so that officials having occasion to go there carry their own eating utensils with them. But in this whole matter the most "advanced" populations have nothing to boast of.

Croatian emigration is, in the main points, similar to Galician and Slovak emigration as previously described. The situation of the peasants, the going abroad to earn money, the return of a considerable number (how large a part no one knows), the misfit of the returned emigrant—all of these things recur here.

The man who has been to America we were told is easily recognized. You can tell him as far off as you can see him. He carries himself more independently, he works better, he is more interested in education but he is unfitted for the old life.

One man who went out a mere laborer returned a skilled workman but he was not content to stay. Another story was of a man who was seized with such an uncontrollable longing for America that he got up in the night and ran away, leaving wife and children.

Too many however, return worn out, though it may be with some money. In America they worked harder than at home and lived little or no better. They spent themselves to the utmost under the stimulus of the "boss," the climate and most of all their own ambition. A Croatian gentleman said to me sadly, "The Americans know how to save themselves but our men are not so clever."

Financially, of course, the movement is a godsend—except to employers. Wages rise, the value of land rises, in some places beyond all reason, the standard of living rises.

But all of this can perhaps be taken for granted and what space remains may be more interestingly used to give an account of the situation, from the Croatian point of view, written for me by the "Lipa" school teacher referred to above:

From my Village

Notes by a Croatian school-teacher

To-day they are telling in the village that fifteen are going to-morrow to Fiume by the early train—men, women and young girls on their way to America. They were all

blessed by the priest after mass. The prayer for their happiness away from home was very moving. All who knelt before the altar were pale, struggling against the tears in eyes which may never see this church again. On this consecrated spot they took leave of the fatherland, our dear Croatia, who cannot feed her children because she is not free nor the mistress of her own money. She must let them go among strangers in order that those who remain may live, they and their children and their old people. And the old people die in peace because they have hope; the little ones shall fare better than ever they have done.

This morning all went early to confession. With God they go safer on their long journey. Toward evening they can be seen hurrying from house to house taking leave of those that they love. Who can say that there will ever be another meeting for them? It is very late before they have finished these visits and the family waits for them with impatience. With impatience, how else when this evening or rather the few hours still left are so short? This is the last supper at home. There is no going to bed, for at three they must start for the station as the train goes at four. It is so sad to hear them driving through the village singing a song which expresses all the feelings of their sore hearts.

The saddest moment of all is the departure. The train has come, they must get on board. How many tears and sobs and kisses in our little forest and rock-bound station. Friends go with them to Fiume—all but the children and the old folks who stay in the village alone.

In Fiume the girls buy what they need for the journey and a little gold crucifix. That must be bought in the fatherland. So must rings, too. Often the parents buy the betrothal rings for their sons and daughters who marry in America and send them to them. Faith and love come from the homeland.

Finally at the ship good byes must be said, the last. One little girl whose older sister was going by train to Vienna, had gone with her to Fiume. But when the train was about to go the little one flung herself down upon the ground in her distress and shrieked terribly. Everyone tried to pacify her but she pressed her little hands over her eyes to hide the engine from her sight, and answered, "It is easy for you to talk, but this hateful engine is robbing me of my sweet sister." She was quite ill with suffering and they had much ado to get her away. But it is hardest for the mothers who let their daughters or their sons go.

Very late, after midnight, people come home—alone. Now come quiet tears and prayers that God may grant the travellers a safe arrival. With what anxiety and joy do they wait for the news from the agent that their dear ones have reached New York in safety. There relatives are already expecting them and the journey can be peacefully continued in their company. Our

people generally go to Michigan. In one town there are so many that our people call it "New Lipa."

The money for the journey always comes from relatives or friends to whom all is honestly repaid later. The young fellows try to save the money to bring over a young girl. When she comes to America—generally, she does not know her suitor—she is married. If she is unwilling, not finding him to her liking, she must pay back the money, but it very often happens that another lad pays it for her and takes her for his wife instead.

Many girls are very fortunate in America. For instance this very day a family is coming home. The wife was poor and ill-favored. Relatives sent her money for the journey to America and there she married a poor and very humble sort of man. By work and saving they have got together \$6,000 in thirteen years. They have six children and with them are now returning. In those days she was poor, ridiculed, alone; now she is well-to-do, respected, the mother of a family. The women are full of curiosity about her. At noon they were all in the street in hopes of seeing her but in vain. She and her family are staying in Fiume and will come to-night, perhaps. My housekeeper is her godmother and so awaits her happy godchild with much pleasure, for she is to offer her for purchase, a large meadow which once belonged to the parents of her godchild, but which they were obliged to sell. I think that would be a very pleasant feeling, to be able to buy back again a piece of land lost in one's father's time, and to let the happy grandchildren jump and play about where once the poor grandfather worked and whence misfortune drove him away to die.

My housekeeper, who is already sixty-five, cannot tell without crying how it used to be here in the good old days. Thirty-four years ago there was no railroad. Our splendid highway, the "Lujziane," even then a century old, saw such activity as will never return. All travel was by this road and our people were happy because they always had the opportunity to work and to live in peace. In one house they kept ten servants, men and maids. Day and night the teams with their heavy loads were on the highway. Labor was very cheap, a man got about thirteen cents and a woman six cents a day. To be sure they had good food beside, bread, meat and wine as much as they wanted, and the children of the women servants were fed too. The wages were low as I have said, yet the people were contented. Some got very rich, but the poor, too, were well provided for.

Twenty years ago two men went to America from here, the first from our place to go. Now nearly half the village is in America. It is hard to till the fields for there are no workers to be had. Whoever has strength and youth is at work in America. At home are only the old men and women and the young wives with their children. Every wife has much to do for herself. Only poor

girls work in the fields. "And they must be paid a crown (twenty cents) a day," sighs my housekeeper and thinks of the better days of old.

The women help one another and live from day to day, dragging along waiting for letters and money. The money generally comes in autumn. Everything is bought on credit through the year, the dealer waits, for he knows that in the autumn it will all be paid. If not then, danger threatens the little house or at least the cow in the stall.

At Christmas and Easter, too, and at mid-summer presents of a few dollars come to the fortunate ones. Others who have a hard lot wait months and years and never receive anything. The husband forgets his wife, the son his father and mother, the brother his sisters and brothers. The new world with new enjoyments silences his conscience and hardens his heart. Oh, how bitterly those at home feel this! They not only suffer, they are ashamed that they have been forgotten.

One often sees jolly fellows at a dance and in gay company which they did not enjoy at home. That tempts them and so one and another is lost. If a relative is near it is not so dangerous for the scamp is under some control and one hopes he will become reasonable. But when one who is quite alone gives himself up to the joys of the world then it goes hard. Thank God such cases are very rare with us. If one goes astray he amends even after years and is not lost.

Near me lives a woman with her husband and the wife of her younger son who came home last year. Her elder son is still in America. He went twelve or thirteen years ago, leaving at home his wife and two children, a boy and girl. His temperament was gay and weak. He soon forgot father and mother, wife and children. He did not write and sent nothing for the support of his family. His poor young wife took it much to heart and died of a decline. His mother had her photographed as she lay on her bier and sent the picture to her hard-hearted son. He sent it back. His own mother cursed him, but he did not change.

The little girl was already eight and the son nine when he sent a letter—the children were to come to him. He sent the money, too. The children went accompanied by the sister of his dead wife. When they arrived he fell in love with her and married her. Now the poor children have their aunt for their stepmother and are very well off. The man has changed greatly and is very watchful of his son, perhaps for fear that he might become as he himself once was. The soul of the dead wife, I think, is satisfied.

Another woman was also very unhappy. Her husband left her with six children and went to America. At first he sent news of himself, but after a while he quite forgot his dear ones. A relative of his wife's, who was also in America, had got him in her net and led him astray. For years the wife and children starved. Once she tried to take

her life but was saved. The eldest daughter, a young girl as pretty as a picture, wrote continually to her father and brought it about that he sent her money for the journey. She set forth with the firmest intention of saving him from his danger and restoring him to her mother. And so it was. The man quite reformed. To-day his wife and all his children are already with him. It goes well with them. All that his poor wife suffered is forgotten. The daughter has made a happy marriage and is living contentedly. Last year I saw a big photograph of a wedding. The whole family are in the picture and I was amazed to see how stout the poor wife had grown and how happy she looked.

Once I was travelling third class on the train from Fiume because I like to hear the talk of the common people. One learns more in such a trip than in the best school. In the same compartment with me was a woman, young but very sad. She was from the village next ours, the place where the chain factory is for which our women and girls make the cane seats by which they earn their living. She had been in Fiume to sell something. The empty basket stood by her. It was large and must have been very heavy when it was full. In talking with me she gave me a picture of her sad life.

She was very poor. Her father had long been dead. Her mother was ailing and was very anxious about her daughter's future. Then came a widower, no longer young, and tried to persuade her that she ought to give him her daughter. But the daughter could not make up her mind to it. "He did not please me." But the mother said, "Take him, my child, and we shall both be provided for." So she married him. Soon he went to America. She was left alone with her little daughter, for her mother died soon after. The child is now nine years old and goes to school. But the father does nothing at all for his family. More fortunate children often strike the poor little girl when she is going home. Then she says to her mother, "Mama, all the children that have a father and nobody dares strike them. Why haven't I a father?" Then the poor woman weeps quietly. In America the husband leads a jolly life. More than that, he borrows money from people and when they want it back he says, "My wife will pay." And so people from America keep coming to her with bills from her husband. I tried to console her. Heaven knows whether she will ever be happy.

What a joy the young husband in America feels when his wife sends him a picture of their first baby. One wrote home, "I can't write much this time for looking at my dear child as it smiles at me from the picture." He is a locksmith and has been in America a year. Two months ago his wife and baby safely joined him there. She writes how hard it is for her to wear a hat. None of the common people wear them here. But her husband says "You may live with me

for years but I shall not go out with you unless you wear a hat." So the woman must be fine. People require it there.

Many girls however take especial delight in the hat that they are to wear in America. But photographs are the best proof to what an extent dress is carried in America. One sees the most beautiful hats and dresses on our women. "It has to be so. It is the custom here," they write. But one must marvel at how fine they are. And when they return they look so entirely different. They know better how to behave and show that they have learned something. All know English even if not quite correctly. All Slavs, especially Croats, have a great talent for languages. Our peasants learn English very fast. Years ago when the first letter came from America from the two earliest emigrants, it was a hard matter to get it read, for as neither of them could write someone else had written for them but in English. The poor wife had to hunt the neighborhood over until she found an official on a railroad who explained the letter to her after a fashion. I have the story from my housekeeper and she tells how the poor wife who had waited months for news moved heaven and earth to get the letter read. Now there would be no difficulty. There are plenty in the village who understand English. The children attend English schools while they are in America and derive great benefit from it when they are grown up.

The women, who are left here alone, almost always remain faithful to their husbands. It is a rare case when now and then one forgets herself. But if it does occur the men show far more feeling and self-control than one might expect. A common peasant in such circumstances has often more strength and insight than an intelligent man from the better classes.

In one neighborhood a man married and went soon after to America. His young wife remained with his parents. His unmarried brother also made one of the household. Suddenly a misfortune. She bore him a child. The parents drove her from the house and wrote her husband how matters stood. She went to Fiume as a nurse and supported herself and her child. The husband not unnaturally was furious and wrote her that she need not expect him to return to her. But with time he forgave her all in the goodness of his heart and wrote for her to come to him. She answered, "I cannot leave my child." Then he wrote again, "Come and bring the child with you," and he at once sent her the tickets both for herself and for the child.

She made the journey in dread. "He will kill me"; that was her only thought. But when he met her she could not believe her eyes. He first took the baby into his arms and then embraced her. They are living peacefully together. All is forgotten. He

loves the child dearly, for they have none of their own. Always when he comes from the mine the poor child is waiting for him like an angel. How much magnanimity this simple peasant has. But the people here are very religious and follow the words of Christ, "Judge not."

What especially pleases them is the respect in which workers are held in America. They are better cared for, too, mentally. They have three or four Croatian papers, they have organizations and learn much that they bring home later. They have their priests and churches, but as yet only two Croatian schools. All is founded by the contributions of workmen. They send a great deal home to the churches, too; they are supporting a poor man, and in 1903, when there were the disturbances in Croatia about the Hungarian flag and the Hungarian inscriptions on the railroad stations, our brothers in America sacrificed a great deal for the support of the families of those under arrest. They love Croatia dearly. Each one longs for home and wants to die here. We Slavs are so soft-natured. Homesickness is our disease. On account of it many Croats cannot hold out and return home too soon.

The talk is all of America. Our newspapers write so much what a bad thing it is for whole families to go there as they do. But it is no use. People must eat. The stones are hard. There is too little land. The government does nothing for the good of the people. There are no factories, there is no building, no mining. So how can people live and pay taxes? And if the taxes are not paid the cow is taken from the stall, the pillows from under the head.

In Slavonia there is no need of emigration, for there the land is fertile and people can make a good living. But here in the mountain district and on the coast, in Lika, too, and in Dalmatia, people have to go to America.

Only American capital could lessen the stream of emigration. Croatia is a beautiful country. Our mountains doubtless hold great treasures, but we lack the money with which to seek them. Only American capital could bring them to light. We have the beautiful sea, the lovely Plitvice lakes and the fine district about Agram, but we cannot make use of these beauties as a rich and free people could do. We have a sufficient income, but as a public man has said, "Our pockets are in the Hungarian trousers." The Hungarians have our money and give us just enough to keep us alive. Only a free and independent nation can progress. We are like dead capital.

But we hope for our national resurrection. So many have already died in this hope. It is our ideal, our dearest one. For this Zriny and Frankopany died. The innocent blood of our best sons must at last bring us good fortune.

The Industrial Viewpoint

CONDUCTED BY GRAHAM TAYLOR

Industrial Efficiency in "Welfare Work."

A group of business men representing some of the largest mercantile and manufacturing plants in Chicago, gathered one evening last winter around an open hearth where they had been invited to meet an eastern merchant. He had a story to tell. It was about his experience in organizing the management of his large store on the basis of a human interest between the employes and the firm. In the course of the sharp questioning and discussion which followed it was conceded that to develop these human interests practically as effective parts of a working business policy, some definite training as well as experience would be necessary for representatives of the employers and the employes. It was thought worth while to try to get a comparison of experiences as to what efforts along these lines had succeeded or failed, what to do first and how to develop it, what not to expect and what to hope for as results in the business, the individual, and the community. So once a week all through the spring, representatives of these merchants and manufacturers have been meeting around this fireside to thresh out with each other in the most conversational and business like way only those practical points which appealed to them as essential to the best organization and management of their plants. The discussions have been regularly reported each week by one of the largest manufacturing corporations to the managers of all its plants throughout the country.

This conference was private in order to secure absolute freedom of discussion which publicity would have at least restrained. They would have no galleries to speak to, these men, no reports in the newspapers to advertise them. Consequently no names of firms or individuals representing them can be mentioned in this account of their discussions. But

the conference was in no way secret. Managers of some of the plants brought groups of employes with them. Personally invited guests were also welcomed.

A back ground was given to the series of interviews by a description of the relations between employers and employes which have existed in the past under differing conditions of industrial life and legislation. Then the conditions—worse and better—now existing in the world's greatest industrial centers were vividly shown by a great variety of stereopticon pictures accompanied by expert explanation. The effect of bad or better shop and housing conditions upon industrial efficiency was thus demonstrated forceably.

The Motive: Good Business.

The more concrete discussions were opened by the manager of a large establishment employing thousands of men and women. He repudiated at the offset any claim to a purely philanthropic motive in these lines of business policy. He said:

This is all wrong. When I keep a horse and I find him a clean stable and good food. I am not doing anything philanthropic for my horse. I am doing for my own interest. If I hire a man and I improve machinery so that he can turn out more and better work, I am not doing anything philanthropic. I am just improving the tools. Apparently the only tool required by a bill clerk is a pen, but the proper kind of a table, an adjustable chair, good light and air are also tools and increase the power of the producer. It is economy, not philanthropy, and adds to the welfare of the employer more than to that of the employe. Many factories underpay their employes and then offer them in seeming charity what they pay for themselves heavily. It is a sort of 'gold brick' game handed out to them.

The thing is to encourage a person, for his own sake, to make his own advancement. The method should be fraternal rather than paternal, the touch of personality upon personality. To lift to a lesser height on a wider level is better than to lift a few individuals higher. The pivotal point is to raise up able broad gauged foremen and

forewomen in place of the kind of 'straw bosses' who make most of the trouble

The representative of another plant employing as many as the former contended for the initiative of the employer as necessary to start and equip such effort. But while buildings and other equipment must be furnished by the firm, the management "should take the people where it finds them and fit whatever is attempted into their lives rather than to attempt to mold the people to its own idea." In the social work under his own direction, "things are left out which the people have to be teased to do. The management does not presume to intrude on the social life of the people, but rather to furnish a respectable and desirable place where they may enjoy their own form of social life. The success of this plan has been most satisfactory. Eight lodges of the neighborhood meet in the lodge hall. Entertainments and other activities are organized and conducted by the people themselves. Evening classes in mechanical drawing, machine practice and other things fitting for practical efficiency in the factory are taught by employees selected for their democratic temperament and their first hand knowledge of their subject. Most of the men attending the classes are from the rank and file of the shop's crews. These classes are recognized by the superintendent of the factory and the employment agent who give proficient pupils from them the preferment. The club house is largely used not only by employees but by people of the neighborhood so that it has become their own social center.

**Training
Employees for
Shop and
Store.**

The training of employees for their work in and by the factory drew more of the members of the conference into the discussion than any other topic. It involved such points as the establishment of schools in the factories as is the custom in France and Germany and in some places in America, the whole subject of apprenticeship, and the relation of public school, trade and technological schools to training for factory work. Nothing however provoked sharper questions and more incisive inquiry than references to what was being attempted along social

or educational lines in the plants represented at the conference. In a good natured way every one tried to discover and puncture anything unreal or impractical to be found in any one's else experiment.

Sometimes experts were summoned and quizzed on such subjects as "thrift methods" and "industrial insurance" as practiced by clubs and societies, trades-unions, benefit associations connected with corporations, railroad relief departments and industrial insurance companies. The participation of the government with employers and employees in promoting and securing industrial insurance was also considered. The relation of the betterment of industrial conditions to local and municipal improvement was another theme fruitful in suggestion.

"Women in industry" drew forth the results of organizing women employees both in trade unions and in independent clubs organized either by the women workers themselves or by their employers. The representatives of these various forms of organization were invited to present their respective merits and entered into "the give and take" spirit with which they were challenged "to make good." Perhaps the liveliest and most practicable profitable evening was devoted to "the foreign immigrants in American industry." Representatives of the Slavic, Italian, and Russian Jewish working people described the incentives, spirit, habits of life, industrial capacity, trials, injustices and triumphs of their fellow workers in America. One of them in a burst of indignant self-respect, roundly declared:

I refuse to be considered a problem. I am a problem to no one but myself. I and my people have created the industry by which we make our own living. We have enriched and contributed value to every one else in America not only, but have helped our own kinsman in the old father land with whom we share our hard earned meagre livelihood.

The conference with officials and others over government inspection, regulation, or control of commerce and industry appropriately closed this interesting series of interviews. It is hoped

that an evening class may be held next winter to carry out the suggestions thus furnished for supplementing the training given in shops and stores by practical conferences with specialists such as have proved so profitable this spring.

Thus it appears that human interests, so far from being ignored either by employes or employers in some of our largest manufacturing and mercantile establishments, are becoming prime factors in the formation of industrial efficiency. Recent events have sufficiently demonstrated what poor business policy it is to ignore them. Over against the loss and shame thus amazingly disclosed stands the inspiring contrast of the sane and human spirit and practical endeavor exemplified in this conference to promote the common welfare of employer and employe by their mutual relationship and effort. It went far toward demonstrating the good policy of being human in industry.

**Employers'
Liability
Abroad.**

There has been a bill before the House of Commons, having for its purpose the amendment and consolidation of the laws with respect to the compensation of workmen for injuries suffered in the course of their employment. The bill does not give complete satisfaction according to *The Lancet* which recommends to the English legislators the perusal of a book lately published by Charles Vibert. This work, to the mind of *The Lancet*, not only affords a new and interesting illustration of the general principle laid down by Sterne that "they do these things better in France"—but also contains a large amount of suggestion useful to practitioners called upon to treat injuries to working people of a kind calling for compensation from their employers. To quote:

The law upon this subject in France is of more recent date than that in England, but is already much more systematized as regards its application, and our neighbors have thoroughly recognized the importance of the scientific "expert" in assisting the legal tribunals in their work of equitable administration. The English Employers' Liability Act dates from 1880 and its administration leaves the settlement of disputed questions to the discretion of a jury, aided by such lights as the medical wit-

nesses called respectively by the plaintiff and the defendant are able to throw upon the case; but the French methods of procedure, as described by Dr. Vibert, appear far better calculated to secure substantial justice at a minimum of cost. The law was enacted in 1898 and under its provisions the workman who sustains an accident in the course of his occupation is treated by the physician of his own choice and at the expense of his employer, whose liabilities on this account are limited by a settled scale of fees. During incapacity from injury, and until he is either cured or left in some settled and permanent state of disability, the workman receives half-pay after the first five days; and he is compensated for permanent disability or impairment of usefulness in accordance with an elaborate scale in which almost every possible consequence of an accident is provided for and is assessed at a percentage upon the original value of the workman. The law makes provision for giving proper notices to all the persons affected and any differences concerning temporary payments are subject to the decision of a magistrate. When an injury has left any degree or kind of permanent incapacity, and the sufferer and the employer are able to agree touching the amount of the indemnity, their agreement is ratified by the president of the civil tribunal and is thereafter unassailable, but if they are unable to agree the case is submitted to the tribunal for adjudication and may be carried to higher courts by appeal. The first decision may also be reconsidered, after the lapse of three years, at the instance of either party, on the ground that the state of the sufferer has been shown by time to be either better or worse than was originally supposed.

An "accident of labor" is defined to be something sudden and unexpected, or manifestly abnormal in its occurrence, and therefore does not include what are described as "professional" maladies, more or less incidental to the industry pursued, such, for example, as lead poisoning in the case of painters or pottery workers. Dr. Vibert quotes with approval the definition of Dr. Thoinot, which makes an accident comprise "every external wound, every surgical or medical lesion, every psychical nervous disturbance (with or without associated bodily lesion) resulting from the sudden effect of external violence intervening during work or in consequence of work, and every internal lesion produced by a violent effort in the course of work." He further points out that the term external violence must be made to include the effects of heat and cold, as in cases of sunstroke or of congelation. In any case in which the question at issue cannot be satisfactorily determined, either by the magistrate immediately after the accident, by the president of a ment, by the civil tribunal, or by a court of tribunal called upon to ratify an agree- appeal, recourse must be had to the advice

of nominated experts, and for this purpose any practitioners who have attended the patient, as well as any who may be permanently employed either by the industrial undertaking in which the accident occurred, or by any assurance office concerned, are absolutely ineligible. The experts are sworn, unless this formality be waived by common consent of the litigants, and they hold a session at which the physician in charge of the case is expected to attend, and at which both the employer and the injured person are represented. They listen to all that can be told them, examine all certificates which have been given during the progress of the case, make every examination of the patient which seems to them to be required, and appeal at every step to the physician in charge and to the litigants as to whether there is anything else which they should do. They may make more than one visit, either to avoid fatiguing the patient by prolonged examination or in order to clear up any doubtful point, and they then privately settle their report and present it to the presiding authority concerned, describing the injury and giving their considered opinion as to the actual state and the probable future of the sufferer. Upon the materials thus supplied the decision of the tribunal will be founded; and the costs of the inquiry are limited by a legal tariff of the fees payable to all who are concerned.

A considerable time will probably elapse before an equally effective measure of assessing the results of accidents will be introduced into this country, and our "experts" will probably long continue their present practice of delivering independent and sometimes widely different opinions in the witness box, opinions between which an absolutely ignorant body of jurymen must decide according to their several degrees of illumination.

**Industrial
Accidents;
Rights and
Welfare.**

The highest court in the state of New York recently handed down unanimously

a decision declaring that the welfare of the community is sufficient ground upon which to set aside a voluntary contract entered into by an employe waiving his right to damages in case of accident in the course of his employment. The progressive character of this decision is the more readily appreciated after a perusal of George W. Alger's penetrating article in a recent *Atlantic* discussing *Some Equivocal Rights of Labor*.

Mr. Alger declares that the grievance of the workingman against many legal decisions is "that in a multitude of instances the courts give what seems to him counterfeit liberty in the place of its

reality." He illustrates this with a couple of concrete examples. A jury awarded damages to a girl who had suffered injury to her arm through the failure of her employer to provide the safety appliances prescribed by law.

"The highest court of New York took away that verdict and dismissed her case. The court said that the girl fully understood the danger to which her employer's violation of the law had exposed her. She had the 'right,' it declared, to assume the risk of injury and keep at work at this machine, notwithstanding the danger to which she was exposed. The judges said that because she kept at work, knowing the danger, she was presumed to have agreed with her employer to waive any claim of damages from him in case she was hurt. She had a right to do this notwithstanding the requirements of the statute which ordered him to protect her safety. Instead of giving this girl the actual and substantial right which the statute provided for her,—instead of declaring that she had a right to work in safety,—they gave her an academic right, the right to work in danger and suffer by it without redress . . . Labor's right to get killed, guaranteed by decisions of which this New York case is but a characteristic example, is not highly esteemed by the people to whom the guarantee is given. The counterfeit liberty is no more satisfactory to its recipient than is the counterfeit dollar."

In Arizona there is a statute prohibiting the employment of locomotive engineers for more than sixteen consecutive hours, without an allowance of nine hours for rest. In 1903 an engineer after working seventeen consecutive hours was sent out against his protest on a run that consumed fourteen additional hours. After thirty-one hours of continuous service he fell asleep in his cab and a collision took place. The highest court having jurisdiction over the case declared that the injuries of the engineer were his own fault, and that, while the railroad was liable to passengers, it was not responsible to the engineer:

It says that the violation by the railroad of this reasonable statute, in overworking the engineer beyond human endurance, "would not excuse the contributory negligence of Smith" (the engineer), "which arose from his working for such a length of time that he was unfitted for business. He knew his physical condition far better than the railroad company could know it, and cannot excuse his carelessness in falling asleep on his engine, while it was standing on the main track, by the fact that he was

required by the master mechanic to take out a train after he had been at work for seventeen hours."

The logic of this decision, like that of hundreds of others of a similar character, is absurdly simple, and to the workman absurdly unjust. The reasoning of the court is that this man could have refused to work if he was tired, and could have taken his chances of an almost certain discharge from employment. The decision is simply one of a thousand judgments which declare to the workman what is to him a worthless and academic liberty,—a liberty which exists without law or the declaration of the courts,—the right to lose his job. It scarcely needed a legal decision to tell this engineer that he could throw up his job if he did not want to work thirty-one hours on a stretch. The law the workman wanted was a law which would place reasonable limitation on the duration of his labor without costing him his position.

These two illustrations might be multiplied, but further examples would add little. The workman does not want the vain liberty so often declared to him by the courts, of throwing up his job and looking for another. He does not take kindly to the judicial affirmations to him of the right to be maimed without redress, or to be killed, by his employer's indifference to his safety.

There is small comfort for the workers who have secured by strenuous efforts the passage of a law reducing the number of hours of labor, by forbidding their employers to require more, to be told by the courts that the constitution "guarantees" them the right to work fourteen hours when they want to work eight, and that the statute which they had secured by so much effort is unconstitutional because it interferes with their "freedom of contract."

**The Recent
New York
Decision.**

In the light of this pointed discussion of the subject, the recent decision of the New York Court of Appeals, the same court which rendered the first of the decisions cited by Mr. Alger, is seen to be of the largest significance. Coming as it does after a series of noteworthy decisions of the federal supreme court in support of popular rights, one of which was discussed edi-

torially in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS for April 7, it affords one more instance that will remove the cause for distrust in the courts felt by a not inconsiderable portion of the "plain folks."

The case was that of an employe of an express company who had signed an ironclad contract assuming all risks of accident or injury which he might sustain in the course of his employment, even if the accident should be due directly to the negligence of the company or of its officers, agents and employes. There was no doubt that the contract had been freely and deliberately made by the employe. Subsequently he sustained serious personal injury through the negligence of the company, and in spite of his contract he brought action for compensation. He proved his case and the jury awarded him damages, and the Court of Appeals has now affirmed that judgment.

The decision is based upon grounds of community welfare. Contracts which are opposed to this are against public policy.

The state is interested in the conservation of the lives and the healthful vigor of its citizens, and if employers could contract away their responsibility at common law it would tend to encourage on their part laxity of conduct in, if not indifference to, the maintenance of proper and reasonable safeguards to human life and limb.

It is admitted by the court that freedom of contract is invaded by the decision, but the contention is made that the state is entitled to impose salutary restriction on freedom of contract for the surer and better protection of its members. Although the statutes do not prohibit such contracts from being made, it is becoming more and more evident that the courts will consistently refuse to declare them legal and binding.

CHARITIES

AND The Commons

A WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PHILANTHROPY AND SOCIAL ADVANCE

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To Readers. In the eight months since the organization of our publication committee, we have merged three magazines and carried on an aggressive educational work. Upon our ability to weather financially this period of growth and development depends the future of this co-operative publication venture.

Readers, then, are asked to bear with the stringent economy which must be resorted to during the summer months. Weekly issues, with exception of the monthly magazine numbers, will be reduced to practically a news basis.

Subscribers, in arrears, are asked to take in good part any bills sent to them—and remit.

Subscribers, in good standing, are asked to think over their circle of friends and see if among them some would not be glad to subscribe. And get them to.

We are not reduced to such straits as the proverbial editor of the country weekly, craving cord wood and meals out, but it is only by an energetic pulling together that progressive plans can be entered into in the fall without serious handicap.

CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS.

The Solomon and Betty Loeb Memorial Home for Convalescents. It will be remembered that the Solomon and Betty Loeb Memorial Home for Convalescents was organized about a year ago to provide country air and wholesome surroundings for persons recovering from serious illness, but no longer fit subjects for hospital treatment. The buildings at East View, Westchester County, New York, are now so far advanced, that it is possible to receive applications for immediate admission. The formal opening of the institution will take place next fall, when all of the buildings shall have been completed. At present, only the administration building and one of the cottages are ready for occupancy; two additional cottages for adults and one for children are still unfinished.

The location as well as the design of the buildings are admirably suited to their purpose, and it is to be hoped that many, who would otherwise permanently injure their constitution by too early resumption of active life after sickness, will now find a place wherein to recover their entire strength.

The directors are particularly anxious to have it understood that the home is not only for the poor; it offers all the comforts of a modest country hotel at a reasonable price, and nobody need hesitate to apply for admission for fear of being a recipient of unrequited favors. The charge for board will, however, be remitted whenever the applicants convince the committee of their inability to pay. Under the terms of the foundation, the home is absolutely non-sectarian.

There is no intention of making a hospital out of the convalescent home; consequently, patients still requiring medical attention will not be received, neither will those who are afflicted with pulmonary consumption or other communicable diseases, or who are in a highly nervous condition. On the other hand, it is not necessary that a candidate for admission shall come from a hospital or have passed through an acute disease; persons who are suffering from anemia or similar weakness, requiring only good fresh air and nourishing food, will also be accepted:

The city office of the home, 356 Second avenue, is open every forenoon excepting Saturdays and Sundays, to give information, furnish application blanks, etc. Applications must be accompanied by a medical certificate, but they must also be approved by the regular admitting physician.

Physicians, hospitals and settlements will be furnished with blanks and all necessary information upon addressing Miss Elizabeth Frank, Clerk of the Convalescent Home, 356 Second avenue.

The Death of Michael Anagnos.

Michael Anagnos, president of the Greek Union of America, but to workers in the field of philanthropy and education more widely known as a leader in the development of the training of the blind, died on June 29, at Turn Severin, Roumania. Dr. Anagnos was the son-in-law of the late Samuel G. Howe and Julia Ward Howe and was the successor of the former as superintendent of the Perkins Institute for the Blind, Boston. In furthering the work so broadly conceived by Dr. Howe, Dr. Anagnos contributed in no small measure toward shaping the trend of institutional instruction of the blind in this country. This was not without definite influence upon educational methods in this field throughout the world, and upon the practice of education generally. It was his very loyalty to the conceptions of the progressive work of the pioneer days which led him in the last few years to view other than with favor the newer movements in behalf of the adult blind, in which the emphasis is more largely industrial than educational in the old sense. Born in a village of Epirus in 1837, Dr. Anagnos was for

many years identified with Greek politics. After coming to America for several years he was private secretary to Dr. Samuel G. Howe, and it was while serving in that capacity that he and Miss Julia R. Howe were married.

Census Report on Blind.

There were 64,763 blind persons in the United States in 1900 according to a special report on the blind and deaf just issued by the Bureau of the Census. This means that about one in every 1,200 of the total population was either wholly or partially blind. The report states, however, that:

these figures can be considered only as the minimum, as an unknown proportion of the blind were not located by the enumerators. The number of partially blind by no means represents the facts as to defective eyesight, but represents only "verified" cases.

Of the total number of blind, 37,054 or 57.2 per cent. were males.

The most important causes of blindness were found to be:

Cataract, injuries, accidents, and operations; congenital blindness; old age; and sore eyes. Unknown causes were responsible for a slightly greater proportion of cases than any of the above causes. The principal causes of blindness occurring after birth and under twenty years of age were, injuries, accidents, and operations; sore eyes; catarrh; measles; and scrofula. The principal causes of blindness occurring in adult life were, cataract; injuries, accidents, and operations; old age; affections of the nervous apparatus; military service; sore eyes; and neuralgia.

The fact which the new associations for improving the condition of the adult blind are endeavoring to bring effectively before public opinion—that most blind persons become so after school age and need provision beyond that offered by the institutions for blind children and youths—is brought out clearly:

Almost 65 per cent of the blind became blind after 20 years of age, and only a little more than 30 per cent before 20 years. It is interesting to note that about one-fourth of the persons blind from childhood, or about one-tenth of the total number of blind, were born blind.

In about 5 per cent of the cases of blindness reported the parents of the blind were related as cousins. Of the blind whose parents were so related 25 per cent were congenitally blind, while among the blind whose parents were not cousins, the proportion congenitally blind was only 6.8 per cent.

Of the blind at least 10 years of age, 20 per cent were engaged in some gainful occupation, as compared with 50.2 per cent among the general population. The partially blind, as would be expected, show a larger proportion gainfully employed than do the totally blind. The percentage of persons engaged in professional pursuits, trade and transportation, and in manufacturing and mechanical industries is larger among the totally blind than among the general population. In these three classes of occupations the totally blind show a higher percentage engaged than do the partially blind. Of the partially blind gainfully employed, the majority were engaged in agricultural pursuits, the percentage so engaged being considerably higher than in the general population.

**The Census
Report on
the Deaf.**

The report on the deaf gives not only the data concerning color, sex, race, nativity, marital condition, school attendance, and occupations, but also much information in regard to deafness as a defect and to the ability of the deaf to communicate.

In collecting the figures for this report the census enumerators were instructed to return the name, sex, age, and post office address of every person who could not understand loudly shouted conversation. The object of this definition of the deaf was to eliminate from the report all who were simply "hard of hearing." To quote from the report:

According to this method of classification, the total number of deaf was finally determined to be 89,287, or one in every 850 of the general population. There were 37,426 totally deaf and 51,861 partially deaf. Among the total number of deaf 2,772 were also blind and 24,369 dumb. * * *

Deafness upon the whole is more common in the northern part of the United States than in the southern. The north Atlantic and north central divisions show a larger ratio per million than the south Atlantic and the south central, and the largest ratio of all is found in the New England states.

Of the total number of deaf, 46,915, or 52.5 per cent, were males.

Of the 89,287 persons returned as deaf, 55,501 were able to speak well, 9,417 were able to speak imperfectly, and 24,369 could not speak at all. Practically all of those who speak imperfectly or not at all lost their hearing in childhood (under 20 years of age). On the other hand the majority of deaf who speak well lost their hearing in adult life. Of the deaf and dumb, more than 96 per cent were reported as totally deaf. It will be seen that the ability to speak is dependent largely upon two fac-

tors—the period of life when deafness occurs and the degree of deafness. Deafness interferes rather with the acquisition of speech than with its retention after it has once been acquired.

When the subject of deafness is considered from the point of view of consanguinity, it would seem that heredity has played a part in producing congenital deafness and the deafness occurring in adult life; whereas deafness occurring in early childhood, after birth and under the age of 5, is probably to a large extent adventitious. Where a tendency toward ear trouble exists in a family, it may lie dormant and unsuspected until some serious illness attacks a member of the family, when the weakness is revealed and deafness is produced. In such cases deafness is attributed to the disease and not to the weakness, although both are probably contributive causes.

Those who had attended school formed 73.6 per cent of the deaf. Of the totally deaf, 77.5 per cent had attended special schools, as compared with 6.8 per cent of the partially deaf. Of those who lost hearing before they were 5 years old, 81.5 per cent attended special schools.

Of those at least 10 years of age among the deaf, 38.5 per cent were gainfully employed, as compared with 50.2 per cent among the general population. Deafness is, therefore, to some extent a drawback in securing employment, although the deaf, as a class, can by no means be considered dependent. Of the deaf who were gainfully employed, 89.7 per cent were found in occupations in which perfect or even partial hearing is not essential. It is especially interesting to note that the deaf who had attended school showed a much larger per cent gainfully employed than those who had not, and that whether the employment be skilled or unskilled is largely determined by school attendance.

**The Blind
Workers of
New York.**

In the few months since the organization of the New York Association for the Blind, there have been interesting developments. In furtherance of its plan to provide shops for men and women in which any trade which promises to be of use for the blind may be tried, a workshop for blind men has been opened and home teaching for both sexes is carried on principally through blind teachers who give instruction in typewriting, reading, writing, machine and hand sewing, knitting and musical notation. Co-operation in teaching, reading and writing has been volunteered by the teacher of the blind of the New York Public Library. The association has to care for all sorts and conditions of workers; some have diffi-

culty in doing the simplest thing, others show great quickness in learning. At present any blind man who has lived in Greater New York for two years and is physically qualified, who wishes to learn chair-caning or broom making, is given a chance to do so. A man of forty-two came to the shop from the hospital where he had recently become blind. He had no future before him but "the island." He had been a porter and was totally unused to handling tools. It was found that he could successfully size broom corn. He has still to learn winding, sewing, sorting, and cutting. Then he will have the trade of broom-making "at his finger tips," and should be in a position to earn a self-respecting wage. A sighted man superintends the broom-making and instruction, and sees that the finished product is marketable. The blind men also learn much about their work from each other.

Expert blind chair-caners who work in the shops teach the novices there. These teachers are paid by the association for the time which they give for instruction as well as for their work. Some applicants who have already learned their trade, for lack of a middleman, have been living in enforced idleness. The association gives work and a fair wage to these who would otherwise be "unemployed." One of the best workers in the shop, although an expert chair-caner before he came there, lived on alms, because no one would give him the work for which he asked. To shorten the length of his monotonous day, he got out of bed late in the afternoon. Now, through the association, he has more work than he can do. A sighted clerk is in charge of the shop, which is under the able direction of Eben P. Morford, a blind member of the executive committee of the association. Mr. Morford generously volunteered his co-operation and has given the organization the benefit of his twenty-three years' experience as the manager of the Brooklyn Industrial Home for Blind Men.

Writing of the work, Miss Winifred Holt, secretary of the association, says:

One of the chief advantages of the shop is that it gives a blind worker what Helen Keller calls "his right as a human being to share

God's greatest gift, the privilege of man to go forth unto his work," while at the same time it does not disturb his home relations, nor "institutionalize" him. It offers him the opportunity and "the satisfaction which comes from lucrative toil," but leaves him free to mix with the sighted world and to share its interests and responsibilities.

Great good-will exists among the workmen. A new-comer at the shop is welcome, and quickly learns his way about the place. Most of the men join the Blind Men's Club, which exists for the co-operation of the men, for their advance mentally, morally, physically and financially. It is held under the direction of the association, and the president is a blind professor.

The blind have chosen for the motto of the association, "Light through Work." They need work now at the shop, 147 East 42nd Street, where any visitors are welcome. Every chair caned, and every broom sold there helps a blind man to become a wage-earner. In a show case at the shop, may be seen examples of the work of blind women (some the result of home teaching), which is sold by the association for the benefit of the women.

The blind of New York are seeking to lift themselves from the class of dependents, and to become as far as possible, independent and self-supporting. The association shows that it is possible to carry out their wishes, and its success now rests largely with the generosity and co-operation of the public.

The Old Swimming Pool.—At a recent meeting of a young men's club in New York the subject of the Tenement House Department was discussed and an extract was read from the report of a tenement house inspector. Walking over a roof, he saw the head of a boy protruding from the water tank. As he ran toward it, two boys jumped from the other side, seized the clothes which lay concealed beside the scuttle and made away. "That story of the inspector about the boys bathing in the water tank is no joke," said one of the audience. "I used to do it myself regularly in the warm season. All us fellows used to. Usually we went into the tank of one of the factories near by, but sometimes we couldn't get there, and then we took the tank at home." May be the moral of the incident is that of the limerick:

Into the water-well
That the plumbers built her,
Our Aunt Eliza fell!—
Now we've bought a filter.

A Correction.—Through a misunderstanding, the name of Dr. Ferd. C. Valentine, as president of the American Urological Association, was printed in our issue of April 27, in connection with a communication from Dr. Valentine—*The Physician's Culpability*. It was not his wish that his name, especially his connection with the association, should appear.

Recent Magazines

- CHARITY.** *The National Conference of Charities and Correction.* George Van Derveer Morris. (Western Christian Advocate—May 30.) *The Relief of the Stricken City (San Francisco).* Dr. Edward T. Devine. (Review of Reviews—June.) *Systematic Relief in Frisco.* Ernest P. Bicknell. (Co-operation—June 2.) *State Aid to Sectarian Institutions.* Prof. Morris Loeb. (The American Hebrew—June 1.) *A Decade of Official Poor-Relief in Indiana.* Amos W. Butler. (American Journal of Sociology—May.) *Free Bread vs. Bread at Cost.* Ada Melville Shaw. (Western Christian Advocate—June 13.)
- CHILDREN.** *Work Among Children in Baltimore.* Helen Somerville. (Woman's Home Missions—June.) *Boys' Clubs.* Emma Winner Rogers. (Good Health—June.) *The Bad Boy: How to Save Him.* Hon. Benjamin Lindsey. (Our Boys' Magazine—June.)
- CIVICS.** *The Civic Efficiency of the Educated Class.* Henry M. Whitney. *State-Owned Savings Banks.* D. G. Cooke Adams. (Arena—June.) *Municipal Activity in Britain.* T. D. A. Cockerell. (American Journal of Sociology—May.) *A System of Public Playgrounds.* Joseph Lee. *Arts and Crafts in Civic Improvement.* Mrs. M. F. Johnston. *The Public Library and Civic Improvement.* Frederick M. Crunden. *A Year's Work for Civic Improvement.* Clinton Rogers Woodruff. *Women as a Factor in Civic Improvement.* Mrs. Charles F. Millsap. *The Cleveland Home Gardening Association.* Starr Cadwallader. (Chautauquan—June.) *Venezuela's Public Buildings.* A. H. Battey. (Architects' and Builders' Magazine—June.) *Street Transportation and the Tenement Problem.* Delos F. Wilcox in "The American City." (The State—June 9.) *The Twenty-fourth Street School Garden.* N. A. Lamb. (Woman's Municipal League Bulletin—June.) *State and Municipal Ownership in Sweden VII.* Conclusion. Eric Oberg. *Municipal Ownership in Great Britain.* Eric Oberg. (Public—June 9.) *Ideas for Civic Education from the Juvenile City League.* William Chauncy Langdon. (Chautauquan—June.) *Municipal Finance in Germany.* L. Dreier. *The Town Meeting in New England.* Minona S. Fitts-Jones. (Public—June 16.) *Some Thoughts of a Civil Service Reformer in Public Office.* Charles J. Bonaparte. (Good Government—June.)
- ECONOMICS.** *How New Zealand Controls the Distribution of Wealth.* Florence Finch Kelly. (Independent—June 21.)
- EDUCATION.** *The Proposed Pan-American Trades College.* Prof. Frederic M. Noa. (Arena—June.) *A Child's Education in Relation to Trades.* M. L. Chanler. (Woman's Municipal League Bulletin—June.) *Is the Public School Just to the Boy?* Ben. B. Lindsey. (Indiana Boys' Advocate—June.) *Carnegie Libraries.* Theodore Wesley Koch. (Chautauquan—June.)
- FRESH AIR.** *The Potential Value of a City Roof.* George Ethelbert Walsh. (World To-day—June.)
- HOSPITALS.** *New York State Hospital for Crippled Children.* Iona Gratia Wilkins. (Trained Nurse and Hospital Review—May.) *Visiting Day at the Hospital.* Emily Harrison Bance. *The Boston Floating Hospital.* Robert W. Hastings. M. D. (Trained Nurse and Hospital Review—June.) *The Boston Floating Hospital.* Mildred Gutterson. (Churchman—June 23.) *Hospital Stewardship.* Charlotte A. Aikens. *Southern Hospitals.* Laura A. Lane. M. D. (National Hospital Record—June.)
- IMMIGRATION.** *Immigration as a Source of Supply for Domestic Workers.* Mary Gove Smith. (Bulletin of the Inter-Municipal Research Committee—May.) *Regulation of Immigration.* Speech of Hon. F. M. Simmons of N. C., in the U. S. Senate, May 23, 1906. (American—June 15.)
- HOUSEHOLD RESEARCH.** *A Home Colony.* Upton Sinclair. (Independent—June 14.)
- INSANITY.** *The Nursing and Care of the Insane.* Harriet H. Baird. (Trained Nurse and Hospital Review—May.) *The Nursing and Care of the Insane.* Emily J. MacDonnell. (Trained Nurse and Hospital Review—June.)
- LABOR.** *An Incident of the Sweat Shop.* Bertha Poole. (Independent—May 31.) *Compulsory Investigation of Labor Disputes.* Everett P. Wheeler. (Outlook—June 2.) *Labor in the Chicago Stockyards.* William Hard. (Outlook—June 16.) *Profit Sharing in Theory and Practice.* Leopold Katscher. (Exponent—June.)
- LIBRARIES.** *How a Town Can Get a Library.* John Cotton Dana. (Independent—May 31.)
- MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP.** *State and Municipal Ownership in Sweden VI.* Erik Oberg. (The Public—June 2.)
- NURSING.** *The Ideal Curriculum for a Training School.* G. S. C. Badger, M. D. *Nursing on the West Coast of Africa.* Agnes P. Mahony. (Trained Nurse and Hospital Review—May.) *What Does Professional Training Mean?* Mary H. Tufts. (Trained Nurse and Hospital Review—June.) *Some Remarks upon the Nursing of Cases of Mental Disease.* C. R. Clarke. (Canadian Nurse—June.) *Some Reasons for the Training School in Small Hospitals.* Mary E. Reid. *The Organization and Control of Training Schools.* George P. Luddam. *Teaching Nurses by Clinical Demonstration II.* Charlotte A. Aikens. (National Hospital Record—June.)
- PUBLIC HEALTH.** *The General Death-Rate of Large American Cities.* Frederick L. Hoffman. (Publication of the American Statistical Association—March.) *Some of the Recent Aspects of Quarantine and Its Relation to Public Health.* M. J. Rosenau, M. D. (Journal of the American Medical Association June 2.) *Investments in Health.* Mrs. E. E. Kellogg. *Out-of-Door Life at Home.* Kate Lindsay, M. D. *Flies as Carriers of Disease.* Dr. J. O. Cobb. *Health Lessons from the Earthquake.* J. H. Kellogg, M. D. (Good Health—June.) *The Laboratory in Public Health Work.* Herbert D. Pease, M. D. (Medical Review of Reviews—May 25.)
- RACE PROBLEM.** *Church Legislation and the Negro.* Rev. A. B. Hunter. (Churchman—June 2.) *The Negro and the South.* Harry Stillwell Edwards. (Century—June.) *The Heart of the Race Problem III.* Archibald H. Grinke. (Arena—June.) *Intelligence of the Negro.* H. Lieb. (Public—June 9.)
- SANITATION.** *Life or Death in Pure Country Drinking Water.* George Ethelbert Walsh. (Architects' and Builders' Magazine—June.)
- SOCIALISM.** *The Socialist Programme.* Edward Slade. (Arena—June.)
- SOCIOLOGY.** *The Indian of To-day and To-morrow.* Charles M. Harvey. (Review of Reviews—June.)
- SOCIAL SERVICE.** *Rescue Work in New Orleans.* E. A. Vail. *New York's Gospel Fleet.* Robert Sterling Blair. *Native Workers in Chinatown.* Mary K. Hyde. (Christian Herald—June 20.) *Sophie Wright The Best Citizen of New Orleans.* John L. Mathews. (Everybody's—July.) *Welfare Work Among the Cotton Mills of Lowell.* (Labor Bulletin of Massachusetts—May.) *The Social Return.* Lenore M. Lybrand. (New Century Journal—June 1.) *Social Settlements and Their Work Among Children.* Graham Romeyn Taylor. *Welfare Work from the Employee's Standpoint.* C. C. Rayburn. (Chautauquan—June.) *Social Service: A Glimpse of the Woman Question in Industrial Betterment.* Miss Frances Benson. (Exponent—June.)

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The advertisements of the Employment Exchange Department will be discontinued for a few weeks. Meantime the work of the Department goes on as usual.

Both employers and candidates are invited to make their needs known, so that, at the opening of the busy season (about August 1st) the Editor may be in a position to act promptly.

State Charities Aid Association

I. Inspection and Improvement of Public Institutions

The first object of the association is to improve the condition of public charitable institutions in the state of New York. It has 1,000 volunteer visitors in fifty different counties. Through these and through its office staff it visits state hospitals for the insane, state charitable institutions, county, city and town almshouses and public hospitals. The number of inmates of such institutions exceeds 47,000, and they cost the public over \$8,000,000 a year. This voluntary co-operation of private citizens with public officials is a work of practical patriotism and has greatly improved the administration of state, county and municipal charities.

II. Charity Legislation

Besides framing and securing the passage of needed legislation, the association examine carefully all bills relating to charitable matters (about 100 each year), and takes such action as may be advisable to secure their passage, amendment or defeat. Its independence of official appointment and of the public treasury gives it a peculiarly favorable position for legislative work.

III. Placing Destitute Children in Families

Orphans, foundlings and permanently deserted children are received from public officials and from institutions in which they are supported by public funds, and are placed in carefully selected permanent free homes usually in the country. Many of them are legally adopted. Five hundred and fifty-six children, received since August, 1898, from many different counties, have been placed in free family homes in all parts of this state, and in several other states.

IV. Providing Situations for Mothers with Babies

Homeless mothers with infants or small children received from public maternity hospitals, infant and foundling asylums, and charitable societies, are provided with situations in the country, keeping their children; 590 situations were provided last year; nine children died while with their mothers in situations (death-rate a little over one per cent); in institutions for children of this age the death-rate is very high. The average cost of each mother and baby under our care last year was \$3.72.

V. Boarding Motherless Infants in Families

A joint committee of this Association and the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor receives foundlings, abandoned and other motherless babies from the Department of Public Charities, and places them in carefully selected suburban families to board until they are strong enough to be placed in permanent free homes for adoption; the mortality among the foundlings has thus been reduced to eleven per cent; 327 babies were under care last year. In addition to what the city pays towards the board of the children, the annual cost of the work to the Joint Committee is \$5,000.00.

Total number of children under the supervision of the Association, October 1, 1905, 1,220. If supported in institutions, they would cost the public \$122,000 per year.

ALL BRANCHES OF THE ASSOCIATION'S WORK ARE SUPPORTED BY VOLUNTARY CONTRIBUTIONS

The total expenses are \$30,000 per year. Contributions of any amount will be gratefully received. Checks should be made payable to Charles S. Fairchild, treasurer, Room 702, No. 105 East Twenty-second street. Special contributions for Nos. III, IV or V, (see above) should be so designated. Clothing for women and children, especially babies, is also desired.

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TO PHILANTHROPIC WORKERS:

WHEN you find children living in a state of neglect and it becomes your aim to uplift the family through the children, we ask that you bear in mind that you have at command the medium of the day and evening industrial schools of the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, where the children receive not only an elementary education of mind and hand, but also a moral uplift and an appreciation of the importance of regularity and the value of steady work as well as a knowledge of a higher standard of living. For the children who do not receive proper nourishment at home, hot dinners are provided in the schools, and the parents in times of sickness or adversity are advised and materially assisted by the teachers, acting as settlement workers and tactful household visitors. More than 10,000 children attended these industrial schools during the year, including 4,000 in the kindergartens; 269 crippled children and fifty-one mentally defective children in special classes, and 140 truant boys in handicrafts.

ORPHANS and abandoned children should be placed out in good, carefully selected family homes in the country. This is the most satisfactory work accomplished by the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY. It is strikingly successful in results, for the orphan or abandoned child is transplanted from the worst environment to the best. During the last year 668 children were placed in families for adoption.

HOMELESS AND WAYWARD BOYS are given a period of probation at our Brace Farm School before homes on farms are sought for them. During the year 701 boys were trained and placed in families.

WILLFUL AND DISOBEDIENT GIRLS are given a training in housework at our Elizabeth Home, No. 307 East Twelfth Street. Last year 235 girls were trained and placed in situations.

DISPOSSESSED MOTHERS with children are cared for temporarily at our Mothers' Home, No. 311 East Twelfth Street. To 466 helpless mothers and children shelter was given during the year.

WE INVITE your co-operation. The list of industrial schools and temporary homes will be sent on application to the Secretary, Mr. C. L. Brace, at the central office, 105 East Twenty-second Street, and information will be cheerfully given.

TO THE PUBLIC:

CONTRIBUTIONS in aid of this great work will be gratefully received by Mr. A. B. HEPBURN, Treasurer of the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, at 105 East Twenty-second Street. Clothing and shoes are greatly needed, and partly worn articles will prove acceptable, as the garments will be repaired in our sewing classes, and the shoes put in condition by the boys of the cobbling classes. Old magazines, books and toys will also be welcome.

105 EAST TWENTY-SECOND STREET, NEW YORK

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CHARITIES

AND The Commons

A WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PHILANTHROPY AND SOCIAL ADVANCE

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PUBLICATION COMMITTEE
CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF
THE CITY OF NEW YORK
105 East 22d Street, New York

Entered at the Post Office, New York, N. Y., as Second
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Minneapolis
Joins the
Denver
Movement.

"The Juvenile Protective League" is the name of an organization which has just been formed in Minneapolis, the purposes of which are stated in the articles of incorporation to be—

to offer the services of a volunteer association of citizens of Minneapolis, Hennepin county, Minnesota, incorporated under the laws of the state, in preventing and suppressing conditions contributing to the dependency and delinquency of children; to co-operate with the juvenile court and the various child helping agencies in the community; to promote the study of child problems, and by systematic agitation through the press and otherwise, to create a permanent public sentiment for the establishment of wholesome, uplifting agencies, such as parks, playgrounds, gymnasiums, free baths, vacation schools, communal social centers and the like.

The league has four standing committees: finance, legislation and court procedure, publicity, probation and detention. There are at present five paid pro-

bation officers connected with the Minneapolis Juvenile Court, three being supported by the county and two by private funds, one each by the Unity and Pillsbury settlements. The Juvenile Protective League will take steps to put four additional paid probation officers in the field and will also take up the question of securing a separate detention home for children.

The new movement is fortunate in having as its promoters representatives of the public schools, the board of education, the settlements, the Humane Society, the Associated Charities, and a number of public spirited citizens. The Minneapolis organization is modeled after the Chicago Protective League and the Milwaukee Children's Betterment League, and it will co-operate with the national organization for the federation of child helping agencies, initiated at Hull House in Chicago, last month.

Child Problem Conference.

Over 1,000 persons attended the Child Problem Conference held at Milwaukee on Saturday, May 5, under the auspices of the Woman's School Alliance. The alliance is an organization for the betterment of the local schools and school children. "During the past year," writes Miss L. E. Stearns, library visitor of the Wisconsin Free Library Commission, "the alliance served 15,000 hot lunches at noon time. For a penny a child was given all the hot nourishing soup and rolls he could eat, and 5,000 bowls of soup were dispensed free of charge. In addition to this work, 230

children were clothed that they might attend school, and many pairs of shoes were provided. To call public attention to this work and to the endeavors of twenty-three other child-saving organizations, was the object of the conference."

Miss Jane Addams, of Hull House, Chicago, was the principal speaker. She deprecated the removal of responsibility for the child from the shoulders of the parents; but inasmuch as there are neglected children, she commended the attempt at furnishing them with nutritious food in place of the usual pickle, popcorn or candy purchased by the children's pennies for the noon-day meal.

A report was given of the work of the local Hebrew Settlement, which showed that the two features of the institution most patronized are the baths and the library. The work of the Wisconsin Farm and Home School, located about twenty miles from Milwaukee, was outlined. Judge N. B. Neelen told of the Milwaukee Juvenile Court and one of the state factory inspectors made a plea for an educational test to be included in the state child labor law. The work of the Newsboys' Association, with its 1,500 members, was described. Sunday afternoon meetings are held, attended by over 1,000 boys. Talks are given of interest to the boys and the singing is led by the newsboys' band of seventy-five pieces. The representative of the Children's Betterment League outlined the work of the affiliated organizations.

The interest aroused by this conference, the first held in Milwaukee, has led to the suggestion that it be made an annual gathering.

One Million
and Twelve.

The finance committee of the New York Board of Aldermen has before it a resolution of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment passed July 6 approving the issue of corporate stock to the amount of \$968,000 for new buildings and additions and improvements to existing buildings in the Department of Public Charities. This resolution followed closely upon a request of June 29 from Commissioner Robert W. Hebbard

for \$1,593,000. to meet the most urgent needs of his department and it is the hope of all those engaged in charitable work in New York that equally prompt and generous treatment will be accorded by the aldermen.

Some of the items covered by this pending appropriation are comprised in an estimate of \$12,157,000¹ presented earlier in the year by Commissioner Hebbard to the mayor and setting forth departmental needs for a period of about three years. In its constructive plans for the future this budget is conceived along large and permanent lines.

The New York City Visiting Committee of the State Charities Aid Association recently sent to the members of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment a commentary on Commissioner Hebbard's recommendations, comparing the population of the city with the growth of almshouse and hospital population. The following paragraphs are taken from the statement:

The most important and significant feature of the proposed expenditures is that 82.4% is for hospital purposes and only 7.7% is for almshouse purposes.

In considering this estimate favorably, therefore, the members of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment may be assured that they are not providing for an increasing class of permanent public dependents, thus fastening an ever-increasing burden upon the future for their maintenance; but that they are increasing the facilities for the treatment and cure of disease, thereby increasing the economical efficiency of the people of the city. The proposed expenditure represents, not an effort to deal with an unmanageable and increasing pauper class, but a conservative investment in public health.

The question might arise, since the daily average census of the almshouses during 1905, was 4,113 and the daily average census of the hospitals in the Department of Public Charities was 3,722, whether inadequate provision was not contemplated for almshouse needs during the next three years. Such, however, in our opinion, is not the case.

During the past fifteen years (1890 to 1905), the population of the territory comprising Greater New York increased 60.1%; during the same period of time the number of almshouse inmates increased but 37.5%. In other words, the rate of increase in the

¹Of the total amount estimated by Mr. Hebbard as necessary, \$12,157,000, \$7,400,000, is for new hospitals and \$2,620,000, for additions and improvements to existing hospitals.

number of permanent dependents of the city during the past fifteen years has been less than two-thirds as great as the rate of increase of the population as a whole. It seems reasonable to expect, therefore, that the increase in the number of almshouse inmates will be relatively small. In view of the fact that much cheaper buildings suffice for these purposes than for hospital needs, the proposed expenditure of \$940,000 for almshouse purposes for the next three years would seem to be reasonably adequate.

As to hospitals, however, there is every reason to expect that the number of patients will increase and should increase, at a faster rate than the general population of the city. During the past five years the total population of Greater New York has increased 16.8%; during the same period the number of patients in public hospitals has increased 24.8%. During the same period of time the death rate in the city, as a whole, has decreased from 20.57 to 18.31. Many factors have doubtless contributed to the decrease in the death-rate, but it is significant that increased hospital facilities, and increased use of hospitals, have been coincident with a reduction of mortality and of pauperism. We have no hesitation, therefore, in urging upon the city authorities that early and ample provision be made for the hospital care of all the sick in Greater New York who are unable to provide for themselves efficient medical treatment, nursing and suitable food in times of illness. We believe it to be beyond dispute that money so invested is not so much an investment in lands and buildings, as in the health, efficiency and well-being of the people of the city.

Charity Legislation in New York in 1906

Homer Folks

Only a comparatively few measures relating to charitable interests found their way to the statute books during the session of 1906-7 of the New York State legislature and these are not of very great importance. They include the following:

1. A bill authorizing the city of New York to establish a seaside park, within its own limits or in an adjacent county. This legislation is in conformity with the suggestion in the 1906 message of Mayor McClellan. The establishment of a great seaside park by the city of New York would be a matter of the highest importance to the people of the city. The bill authorizes the expenditure of two and one-half million dollars for the acquisition of the site. It is to be placed under the control of the Department of Public Parks, but the city authorities may recall any portions of the site from

the Park Department, and assign them to the Board of Trustees of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, the Department of Public Charities or the Department of Health, for the purpose of maintaining convalescent hospitals, fresh air homes, or similar enterprises, although no contagious or infectious diseases shall be provided for. For similar purposes the use of portions of the site may be granted for a term of thirty years, with a possible renewal of twenty years, to private charities. The passage of this legislation does not materially affect the powers of the city so far as the territory within Greater New York is concerned, but makes it possible for the city to acquire Long Beach, situated in Nassau county, should it desire to do so.

2. A bill providing for the appointment of a commission to prepare a complete register of the blind in the state of New York, and to inquire into their circumstances, especially as to the desirability of the establishment by the state of industrial schools for the blind, and to report its conclusions to the legislature of 1907.

3. A bill re-appropriating a balance of over \$200,000 in the maintenance fund of the state hospitals for the insane for the past year, for the purpose of erecting special hospital buildings for the treatment of the acute insane at four of the existing state hospitals. The most urgent need of several of the great state hospitals is that of a building erected in accordance with the most modern views as to the early treatment of the acute insane. The appropriation of this amount for these purposes was highly commendable. By a companion bill the insanity law is amended so as to permit the expenditure of \$1,000 per capita in the construction of these buildings. The per capita amount permitted for the construction of other buildings for the insane is \$550.

4. A bill permitting the new site for the House of Refuge now on Randall's Island, to be selected at any point within seventy miles of New York city, the present law limiting the selection to a radius of fifty miles. The commission, consisting of several state officers and the president of the House of Refuge, has had authority for the past two years to select such a site, but has been unable to reach an agreement.

Bills That Failed to Become Law.

Among the bills that failed to become law were several of first rate importance. They represented considerable departures from existing legislation and custom. It is not unreasonable to hope that after longer opportunity for consideration and discussion they will reach the statute books next year. They include:

1. The probation bills, recommended by

the State Probation Commission of 1905-6. The outcome of these measures was referred to in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS for May 19. Having received the approval of one branch of the legislature and of a majority of the committee of the other branch, their early passage at the next session may be expected.

2. The bill for the regulation of the sale of proprietary medicines, providing especially for the labeling of preparations containing narcotics and other harmful drugs. The opposition of powerful interests having a direct pecuniary stake in the proposed legislation has been able to delay but will not, in our opinion, be able to defeat for any considerable length of time the reasonable regulation of the sale of these newly discovered, highly potent agencies of demoralization.

3. Legislation for the prevention of the marriage of the mentally defective. The introduction of legislation on this subject, and also of a marriage license bill, indicate a very considerable public interest in the prevention of the marriage of those who are wholly unfit for such responsibilities. Legislation on this subject should proceed with great care. It is to be hoped however, that the friends of this bill will continue the discussion of the subject, both in and out of the legislature.

4. Near the end of the session, and with no public discussion, a bill was passed which, while primarily political in purpose, would incidentally have accomplished a very valuable social result. It provided for an increase of two in the number of city magistrates in the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx, and for the establishment of a special court to deal with cases of desertion, abandonment and non-support. There is little doubt that these cases are, as a rule, ineffectively dealt with at present. The establishment of a special court for their consideration and decision would undoubtedly increase the amount of study and special effort devoted to the enforcement of the law relating to these subjects. The bill passed the legislature, was approved by the mayor, but failed to receive the approval of the governor.

A number of other measures failed to receive the approval of the legislature, or were vetoed by the governor, for what seems to us excellent reasons. Among these were the following:

1. A bill to authorize united camps of Spanish war veterans to dispense relief to honorably discharged soldiers, sailors, or to the families of such and to collect re-imbursement therefor from local authorities. This bill has passed the legislature in two successive years without a hearing in either house, passing the assembly in each case almost immediately after introduction and passing the senate

late in the session, and in each case has been vetoed by the governor. The bill is seriously objectionable in principle and is also objectionable in many details.

2. A bill preventing the location of any hospital for contagious or infectious disease or of any penal institution in any borough of the city of New York except with the approval of the local board of that borough. The primary object of the bill was to prevent the establishment of a hospital for consumptives in the borough of Richmond, which has been proposed by the Department of Public Charities and approved by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. It has been described as a bill to reverse an axiom by making a part greater than the whole.

3. A bill to establish an unnecessary and expensive state commission to regulate the practice of nursing, overturning the present authority exercised by the Board of Regents over training schools for nurses. There was no expression of public interest in support of this bill and no satisfactory arguments offered for its introduction.

4. A bill authorizing the commitment of girls under sixteen years of age to a private reformatory in Buffalo, which also receives women for reformatory treatment. This bill was in conflict with the proper classification of juvenile and adult offenders, and would have permitted the reception in the same institution, and under the care of the same corporation, of classes of offenders who should be dealt with in different institutions by different boards of managers and by different methods.

5. A bill to compel the reception of patients taken to a hospital in an ambulance in the city of New York, and to prevent the transfer of patients who are dangerously ill from one hospital to another. While this bill would appear to be a humanitarian measure, it was so hastily and crudely drawn, and would have been so impossible in its practical operations, and would have given rise to so many hardships as to suggest that its primary purpose was not the protection of patients, but the political advantage of the cornerers of the city of New York, from whom the bill emanated. That there are hardships to patients transferred from one hospital to another in the city of New York is undoubted. These hardships are in some degree inevitable until the completion of hospitals now in course of construction. The remedies for such evils as are not due to inadequate hospital accommodations, are to be sought in the better control by the city authorities of the ambulance service, and by the voluntary action of boards of managers of non-municipal hospitals, rather than by legislation.

6. The abolition of the Brooklyn Disciplinary Training School. This is the only municipal reformatory in the state of New York. Its history has not been free from

merited criticism. It is an exception to the general system of caring for children in the state. Nevertheless, there is no other reformatory for boys in the borough of Brooklyn; the Jewish Protectory will not be ready to receive inmates for a considerable time to come, the Juvenile Asylum has greatly decreased its capacity, and the Catholic Protectory is already too large for the best administration. The friends of juvenile offenders in Brooklyn would do well, in our opinion, to direct their efforts to the improvement of the existing Disciplinary Training School until such time as private institutions, accessibly situated, with proper capacity, organized on the best modern methods, are open to receive those who are now sent to the disciplinary school.

No bill which could be considered inimical to the charitable interests in the state was enacted.

Lowell Memorial Gateway

The Josephine Shaw Lowell Memorial Committee is glad to be able, at last, to report substantial progress. The executive committee, to whom it was referred to recommend the form that the memorial should take, has determined to recommend the erection of a gateway to one of the footpaths entering Central Park from Fifth Avenue. Inquiry justifies the hope that the plan will meet with the approval of the New York City authorities if the details are satisfactory, and detailed plans are now being prepared for submission to the general committee. In the autumn active steps will be taken to carry the matter to a prompt conclusion.

Notes

Hebrew Children's Home Opens.—The sanitarium for Hebrew children located at Rockaway Park, N. Y., opened for the reception of the tenement children of New York on June 14. With the recent completion of a new building the institution will have 450 beds.

Associated Charities of Bellingham, Wash.—The following are the trustees of the newly organized Bureau of Associated Charities of Bellingham, Wash: Dr. Spencer N. Sulliger, Hugh Eldridge, John Coe, Mrs. McMillin, Rev. O. Wark, Mrs. W. W. Hunt, Allen Campbell, W. P. Brown and Mrs. Duer.

Delaware Anti-Tuberculosis Society.—The Delaware Anti-Tuberculosis Society was organized at a meeting held in the New Century Club of Wilmington on June 7. The following officers were elected: President, Dr. J. J. Black; vice-president, Dr. Harold

Springer; secretary, Dr. Joseph P. Wailes; treasurer, Alfred Gawthrop; attorney, William S. Hilles; board of directors, Mrs. Mary Kilvington, Mrs. Lavina Worthington, Mrs. Ferdinand L. Gilpin, Dr. William H. Hancker, Mrs. Alfred Warner, Mrs. Wesley Weldin, Dr. Peter W. Tomlinson, Dr. Irvine M. Flinn, and Dr. Francis L. Springer of Newport.

Labor Legislation.—The committee on membership of the American Association for Labor Legislation is at present making an active canvass for new members. Upon the progress of that canvass, the further development of the movement started at a meeting in New York last winter, must wait. The prospects seem very good. Among the thirty-five or forty persons elected to membership on the council there have been only two declinations, and the secretary, A. F. Weber, reports that from the replies now coming in to circulars just mailed, there will be a considerable demand for an English translation of the publications of the International Association on the part of libraries and members of the legal profession.

The Christian Register prints an interesting essay by the Rev. Charles Greaves on an old American hymn book—published one hundred years ago by Jeremiah Ingalls, at Exeter, N. H. Many of the hymns "savor of the rankest theological partisanship" and to the mind of the writer "you can frequently hear, and distinctly, the clash of the sword upon the armament of some disbeliever or misbeliever." Witness these two lines, in contrast to the gospel of social responsibility and neighborliness which is being preached so much in this day—

"Safe on the rock he sets and sees
The ship-wreck of his enemies."

* * *

The New York School of Philanthropy.

The enrolment for the school year 1906-7 has begun and there are a number of applications on file for scholarships.

Many of the students of the class of '96 went directly from the school to positions of more or less importance. There were several requests for graduates for positions which had to go unfilled.

The demand seems greatest for people to fill such positions as those of Charity Organization Society Secretary, Club Worker, and Financial Secretary. It seems reasonable to say that any bright young man or woman with the requisite natural qualifications, good academic preparation and one year's hard study and field work with the school, is certain of an opportunity for a career at very reasonable compensation.

For enrolment blanks, further particulars, etc., address the Director.

EDWARD T. DEVINE,
105 E. 22nd St.,
New York.

Personal interviews may be had, by appointment, during July with Mr. Carl Kelsey, Associate Director, at the above address.

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Address all communications to Miss Helen M. Kelsey, Editor Employment Exchange Department of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, Room 353, 156 Fifth Avenue. Kindly enclose postage if a reply is desired.

The advertisements of the Employment Exchange Department will be discontinued for a few weeks. Meantime the work of the Department goes on as usual.

Both employers and candidates are invited to make their needs known, so that, at the opening of the busy season (about August 1st) the Editor may be in a position to act promptly.

State Charities Aid Association

I. Inspection and Improvement of Public Institutions

The first object of the association is to improve the condition of public charitable institutions in the state of New York. It has 1,000 volunteer visitors in fifty different counties. Through these and through its office staff it visits state hospitals for the insane, state charitable institutions, county, city and town almshouses and public hospitals. The number of inmates of such institutions exceeds 47,000, and they cost the public over \$8,000,000 a year. This voluntary co-operation of private citizens with public officials is a work of practical patriotism and has greatly improved the administration of state, county and municipal charities.

II. Charity Legislation

Besides framing and securing the passage of needed legislation, the association examine carefully all bills relating to charitable matters (about 100 each year), and takes such action as may be advisable to secure their passage, amendment or defeat. Its independence of official appointment and of the public treasury gives it a peculiarly favorable position for legislative work.

III. Placing Destitute Children in Families

Orphans, foundlings and permanently deserted children are received from public officials and from institutions in which they are supported by public funds, and are placed in carefully selected permanent free homes usually in the country. Many of them are legally adopted. Five hundred and fifty-six children, received since August, 1898, from many different counties, have been placed in free family homes in all parts of this state, and in several other states.

IV. Providing Situations for Mothers with Babies

Homeless mothers with infants or small children received from public maternity hospitals, infant and foundling asylums, and charitable societies, are provided with situations in the country, keeping their children; 590 situations were provided last year; nine children died while with their mothers in situations (death-rate a little over one per cent); in institutions for children of this age the death-rate is very high. The average cost of each mother and baby under our care last year was \$3.72.

V. Boarding Motherless Infants in Families

A joint committee of this Association and the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor receives foundlings, abandoned and other motherless babies from the Department of Public Charities, and places them in carefully selected suburban families to board until they are strong enough to be placed in permanent free homes for adoption; the mortality among the foundlings has thus been reduced to eleven per cent; 327 babies were under care last year. In addition to what the city pays towards the board of the children, the annual cost of the work to the Joint Committee is \$5,000.00.

Total number of children under the supervision of the Association, October 1, 1905, 1,220. If supported in institutions, they would cost the public \$122,000 per year.

ALL BRANCHES OF THE ASSOCIATION'S WORK ARE SUPPORTED BY VOLUNTARY CONTRIBUTIONS

The total expenses are \$30,000 per year. Contributions of any amount will be gratefully received. Checks should be made payable to Charles S. Fairchild, treasurer, Room 702, No. 105 East Twenty-second street. Special contributions for Nos. III, IV or V, (see above) should be so designated. Clothing for women and children, especially babies, is also desired.

105 EAST TWENTY-SECOND STREET, NEW YORK

Please mention CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS when writing to advertisers.

TO PHILANTHROPIC WORKERS:

WHEN you find children living in a state of neglect and it becomes your aim to uplift the family through the children, we ask that you bear in mind that you have at command the medium of the day and evening industrial schools of the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, where the children receive not only an elementary education of mind and hand, but also a moral uplift and an appreciation of the importance of regularity and the value of steady work as well as a knowledge of a higher standard of living. For the children who do not receive proper nourishment at home, hot dinners are provided in the schools, and the parents in times of sickness or adversity are advised and materially assisted by the teachers, acting as settlement workers and tactful household visitors. More than 10,000 children attended these industrial schools during the year, including 4,000 in the kindergartens; 269 crippled children and fifty-one mentally defective children in special classes, and 140 truant boys in handicrafts.

ORPHANS and abandoned children should be placed out in good, carefully selected family homes in the country. This is the most satisfactory work accomplished by the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY. It is strikingly successful in results, for the orphan or abandoned child is transplanted from the worst environment to the best. During the last year 668 children were placed in families for adoption.

HOMELESS AND WAYWARD BOYS are given a period of probation at our Brace Farm School before homes on farms are sought for them. During the year 701 boys were trained and placed in families.

WILLFUL AND DISOBEDIENT GIRLS are given a training in housework at our Elizabeth Home, No. 307 East Twelfth Street. Last year 235 girls were trained and placed in situations.

DISPOSSESSED MOTHERS with children are cared for temporarily at our Mothers' Home, No. 311 East Twelfth Street. To 466 helpless mothers and children shelter was given during the year.

WE INVITE your co-operation. The list of industrial schools and temporary homes will be sent on application to the Secretary, Mr. C. L. Brace, at the central office, 105 East Twenty-second Street, and information will be cheerfully given.

TO THE PUBLIC:

CONTRIBUTIONS in aid of this great work will be gratefully received by Mr. A. B. HEPBURN, Treasurer of the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, at 105 East Twenty-second Street. Clothing and shoes are greatly needed, and partly worn articles will prove acceptable, as the garments will be repaired in our sewing classes, and the shoes put in condition by the boys of the cobbling classes. Old magazines, books and toys will also be welcome.

105 EAST TWENTY-SECOND STREET, NEW YORK

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CHARITIES

AND

The Commons

A WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PHILANTHROPY AND SOCIAL ADVANCE

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PUBLICATION COMMITTEE
CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF
THE CITY OF NEW YORK
105 East 22d Street, New York

Entered at the Post Office, New York, N. Y., as Second Class Matter

The Drainage Canal and Chicago's Health. Chicago's \$50,000,000 drainage canal is again receiving attention from those who fear for the level of the Great Lakes. The movement for the preservation of Niagara Falls is enlisting and should continue to enlist the active support of the whole country. The public's sense of fair play, however, will see the justice of giving the right of way, so far as abstracting waters from the Great Lake system is concerned, to the great enterprise of the people of Chicago, instead of to any organization whatsoever of private capital designed to take water at the falls for purely commercial purposes. If any curtailment of water rights is to be made, the health of a great city should be considered ahead of the profit of electrical companies, even though their power is to be used for public service.

The fact of the matter is, however, that the Chicago drainage canal has

failed to confirm the forebodings of those who predicted the serious lowering of the lake levels. On the other hand, recent statistics show that it has meant the saving of hundreds of lives annually in Chicago.

A recent bulletin of the Chicago health department has been largely given over to a statement of just what the drainage canal means to the city's health. The diminution in the amount of sewage flowing into Lake Michigan has very greatly improved the quality of the water supply which Chicago obtains from intakes reaching far out into the lake. Before the opening of the canal the average amount of city water pronounced "safe" was 31.6 per cent. Since the opening the average has been 74.2 per cent. "safe." The effect of this upon the city death rate is strikingly shown by the following paragraphs:

During the six years immediately preceding the opening of the drainage channel there had been a total of 141,473 deaths in the city of Chicago—an average of 23,579 each year in an average annual population of 1,462,909 and a rate of 16.20 per thousand of the population.

During the subsequent six years, ended December 31, 1905, there was an annual average of 26,373 deaths in an average annual population of 1,844,663—a rate of 14.31 per thousand, or a reduction of 11.7 per cent. in the general mortality, equivalent to a potential saving of 21,062 lives during the period.

As more specifically related to the operation of the drainage channel than the decrease of general mortality is the reduction of mortality from the impure water diseases, shown in the following figures:

Deaths from typhoid fever in the pre-channel period—3,275; annual rate, 3.76 per 10,000.

Deaths from typhoid fever during the channel period—2,937; annual rate 2.69. Reduction 29 per cent.

Deaths from diarrheal diseases in the pre-channel period—16,669; annual rate, 19.29 per 10,000 of population.

Deaths from diarrheal diseases during the channel period—13,609; annual rate 12.31 per 10,000. Reduction 36.9 per cent.

It is of course impossible to trace this improvement of the city's health wholly to the drainage canal. The figures are significant only as showing broad tendencies and not specific results. As a complete system of drainage the canal requires more years of work and millions of dollars. The intercepting sewers to bring the sewage even from the neighborhoods directly bordering on the lake, at great distances north and south from the mouth of the river, are not yet finished. Under the completed plan the waters of the Calumet river, which flows into Lake Michigan ten miles south of the mouth of the Chicago river, must be diverted as in the case of the latter stream, from Lake Michigan into the canal. The average of 74.2 of the city water as "safe" is too low. The intakes far enough north or south to be outside the region drained by the intercepting sewers still continue subject to great pollution.

The results so far obtained from the drainage canal are sufficient, however, to give Chicago people cause for satisfaction that they had the courage and enterprise to undertake a work of such great magnitude. They should be all the more anxious that the completion of the work be prosecuted with the utmost speed compatible with thoroughness.

**A Virginia
Suggestion
as to
Public Health.**

In an address before the Medical Society of Virginia, at Norfolk, Dr. Bittle C. Keister of Roanoke discussed at length preventive medicine and its relation to municipal government and society. His definite and emphatic insistence upon social measures for the ultimate elimination of disease, such as in some communities has lessened typhoid or tuberculosis or venereal troubles, is especially suggestive. It seemed to indicate a new spirit among the practitioners of the South, and while all of the measures,

some of them coercive, would not find entire acceptance, the statement of such a policy was noteworthy as a basis of discussion. After recommending a portfolio of public health in the federal cabinet, Dr. Keister urged the importance of creating a state commissioner in every commonwealth, whose duty should be to supervise the prevention of all contagious and infectious diseases along lines not altogether dissimilar to the work of a state commissioner of agriculture. He said in part:

One of the important duties of a state sanitary commissioner should be the selection of competent sanitary inspectors for each county and municipality of the state, ranging in number according to population, say one inspector for every 5,000 inhabitants. Each inspector should be required to visit and inspect all the schools, both public and private, that may be within his jurisdiction and make a detailed report each month and all such reports published in a quarterly bulletin or sanitary journal with other important sanitary information. A copy of this bulletin should be sent to each county newspaper with the request to publish same at the expense of the county or municipality and a copy of the paper mailed to each voter in the county. These county and municipal sanitary inspectors should organize into a state sanitary association and be required to hold a convention at some important section of the state at least once each year for the purpose of discussing important topics on hygiene and sanitary science.

**Anti Child
Slavery
League.**

The crusade of the *Woman's Home Companion* against child labor is a type of the higher class of magazine enterprises inaugurated for the purpose of remedying various social abuses. The Anti Child Slavery League is the name it has given to the organization of readers and others through which it will work. Its "creed" follows:

I.—We believe in the right of every child to health and education.

II.—We believe that child labor interferes with that right.

III.—We believe that child labor is in itself cruel and wasteful; that it is mentally, morally and physically injurious to the child; and that it is a distinct menace to the nation.

IV.—We believe that no child under fourteen should work in a factory, workshop, mercantile house, store, office, hotel or apartment house, in any place of public amusement, or should be employed in making, pre-

paring or distributing articles of sale or commerce at home or in any place in the nature of a factory, workshop or mercantile establishment.

V.—We believe that no child between fourteen and sixteen should be permitted to work under the conditions specified unless the child can read fluently and write legibly simple sentences in the English language.

VI.—We believe that no child under sixteen should be employed between the hours of seven p. m. and seven a. m. or longer than eight hours in any twenty-four hours, or longer than forty-eight hours a week.

VII.—We believe that no child under sixteen should be employed in occupations dangerous to life, limb, health or morals.

VIII.—We believe in the establishment of a permanent children's bureau to be conducted by the national government, for the purpose of investigating and reporting upon general conditions directly involving the welfare of children, especially all matters connected with child labor.

IX.—We believe that uniform laws against child labor should be enacted without delay in every state, territory and colonial possession of the United States.

**Summer
Session of
School of
Philanthropy.**

The registration in the ninth summer session of the New York School of Philanthropy exceeded that of any previous year. Nineteen states and two foreign countries (Brazil and Scotland) were represented in the fifty-five students registered in the course under Dr. Carl Kelsey.

Th opening address was delivered by former mayor Seth Low. The first two weeks were devoted to a study of institutions and the regular lectures were supplemented by visits to representative institutions in and around New York. Beginning on July 2 and continuing until July 13, the discussions and lectures centered on the care of needy families, with John M. Glenn of Baltimore in charge. The final two weeks of the course have been given over to constructive social work.

The following registered for the entire course:

Ida A. Acken, Brooklyn, N. Y., agent Bureau of Charities; Rachel Barker, Columbia, Tenn., settlement worker; Anna C. Beale, Jersey City, N. J., deaconess M. E. Church; Frances B. Bouchart, Aberdeen, Scotland, trained nurse; Mary L. Bradshaw, Cleveland, O., agent Associated Charities; Katherine Butcher, Little Falls, N. Y., deaconess M. E. Church; Elizabeth B. Butler, Brooklyn, N. Y., secretary N. J. Consumers' League; Effie Comstock, Milwaukee,

Wis., Cleveland Associated Charities; Elizabeth M. Dinwiddie, Charlottesville, Va., teacher; Sara T. Dissosway, Brooklyn, N. Y., Trained Christian Helpers; Amey B. Eaton, Providence, R. I., student, Brown University; Mary E. Fauntleroy, New Harmony, Ind., secretary, C. O. S.; Mamie Fenley, La Grange, Ga., missionary M. E. Church South; Mrs. Sarah C. Fernandis, Washington, D. C., head resident Colored Social Settlement; Edith W. Fosdick, Buffalo, N. Y., Vassar, '06; Carrie A. Gauthier, Rowayton, Conn., Smith College, '04; John B. Gorman, Brooklyn, N. Y., student Dunwoodie Seminary; Mrs. Julia C. Guion, New York city, trained nurse; George A. Hall, New York city, secretary N. Y. Child Labor Committee; Minnie S. Hanaw, Louisville, Ky., settlement and kindergarten worker; Mary S. Haviland, Brooklyn, N. Y., Boston Associated Charities; Mabel Head, Nashville, Tenn., associate secretary Woman's Home Missionary Society M. E. Church South; Ida Heitzman, Cincinnati, O., settlement; Amy Hewes, Mt. Holyoke, Mass., associate professor economics and politics, Mt. Holyoke College; Elsie M. Hill, Norwalk, Conn., Vassar, '06; Adah Hopkins, Philadelphia, Pa., Pennsylvania S. P. C. C.; Florence K. Johnson, New York city, Peoples' University Extension Society; Ida F. Klemme, New York city, N. Y. C. O. S.; James P. Kranz, Minneapolis, Minn., Assoc. Charities; Paula Laddey, Newark, N. J., Assoc. Charities; Margaret F. Laing, Atlanta, Ga., Assoc. Charities; Jennie E. Lawton, Boston, Mass., matron Day Nursery; Charlotte E. Lee, Huntington, N. Y., teacher; M. Selva Lott, Philadelphia, Pa., Pennsylvania S. P. C. C.; Ida L. Macfarlane, Washington, D. C., teacher sociology National Training School Missionaries & Deaconesses; Agnes Mawson, New York city, teacher; Mrs. Mary A. Mitchell, New York city, N. Y. C. O. S.; Laura E. Packard, Oak Park, Ill., Vassar, '06; Lewis E. Palmer, New York city, CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS; Anna B. Pratt, Elmira, N. Y., Public Charities, Elmira; Jessie Shields, Toronto, Can., volunteer; Dudley F. Sicher, New York city, probation officer; Albert S. Stewart, Newburg, N. Y., minister; Maidee Smith, Brazil, S. A., missionary M. E. Church South; Grace F. Thomson, New York city, settlement work; Frank D. Watson, Philadelphia, Pa., graduate student University of Pennsylvania; Jennie M. Weaver, Wilmington, Del., neighborhood work; Alice R. White, New York city, settlement worker.

The following registered for at least half of the course:

H. Paul Douglass, Springfield, Mo., minister; Mary H. Hoag, Orange, N. J., Associated Charities; Mary C. Hurlbert, Birmingham, Mich., kindergarten; Ruth MacNaughton, Brooklyn, N. Y., settlement worker; Lila V. North, Baltimore, Md., teacher; A. Jeanette Smith, Detroit, Mich., trained nurse; Maud Wilkinson, Chicago, Ill., teacher.

New York Child Labor Legislation

George A. Hall
Secretary, New York Child Labor Committee

This year's session of the New York legislature was marked by a real advance in the matter of child labor legislation as well as by the failure of several propositions which would have decidedly weakened the law.

One of the bills which was passed will bring New York state practically into line with Illinois, Ohio and Massachusetts, in the matter of evening work. Formerly children under sixteen were allowed to work in factories in this state as late as nine o'clock at night, and in stores, messenger offices, restaurants, hotels and apartment houses until ten o'clock. The closing hour now becomes seven P. M., with the exception that outside of cities of the first class the ten o'clock provision regarding stores, messenger offices, and other mercantile establishments remains unchanged. An additional section was inserted in this bill on the floor of the senate to permit children twelve years of age and upwards in cities of the second class to work during the summer vacation only, in stores and other mercantile establishments—a privilege which hitherto has been allowed only to children of third class cities. While this latter provision represents a slight letting down of the law, it is felt that the important gains in the rest of the bill more than offset this small loss. The wisdom of this law is at once manifest to all who know the dangers and temptations that young girls and especially messenger boys are constantly subjected to in our large cities because of evening work. The bill was secured only after hard work on the part of the New York Child Labor Committee, the part referring to department stores and messenger offices having been stricken out of the bill at one time and later restored.

In order that the child labor law might not become a dead letter through the lack of an adequate enforcing machinery, early in the session of the legislature a strong effort was made to secure a lar-

ger appropriation for the Department of Labor, so that its force of inspectors might be enlarged. Instead of giving the department the increased funds, the assembly made its appropriation \$8,000 less than that of last year. Vigorous protests against this were made by the many friends interested in protecting children, with the result that this amount was restored by the senate, but no provision was made for the salaries and other expenses of new inspectors. After further agitation, however, the money needed for these was finally provided, so that the department secured practically all that it asked for at the beginning of the session.

Among the bills introduced which would have had a tendency to weaken the child labor law, was a measure amending the present school census law so as to make the taking of a school census quadrennial instead of biennial. Authorities interested in stopping child labor agree that a school census is absolutely essential to keep the children in school, and as no such census has been taken in New York state since 1897, it was felt that there is urgent need for such a census at least every two years, many believing that an annual census was needed if the results desired were to be accomplished. To allow four years to elapse between the taking of such a census is felt to be most unfortunate, and this bill was therefore actively opposed, and failed to pass.

Another bill relating to a school census which also failed of passage called for a tabulation of the state enumeration taken last June for the use of the state departments of health, labor and education. The bill, barring one clause, was a good one, and should have passed. The objectionable clause provided that a transcription should be made of the names of school children secured by the state census in 1905, and that this transcription should take the place of a school census this coming October. If the bill had passed, this census, instructions for the taking of which had already been issued by the State Department of Education, would have been given up, while the data substituted—secured on

the 1905 schedules—would have been practically worthless, inasmuch as more than a year would have elapsed before the information could have been put in the hands of the local school authorities.

In these bills and in three other bills relating to child labor the New York Child Labor Committee took an active interest, and is responsible in part at least for the passage of those which have now become laws and of the defeat of the others.

Notes

Conferences of Workers with Boys.—The Lake Geneva Conference of workers with boys will be held from August 1 to 6 inclusive. The Lake George Conference will be in session from August 25 to 30.

Street Boys in Sweden.—Miss Cecilia Milow, who came to this country from Sweden three years ago to gather information about work with street boys, has been so successful in organizing such clubs in Stockholm that a philanthropist has guaranteed her a life income so that she may continue this work throughout the kingdom.

Playground in Porto Rico.—Porto Rico is so up-to-date as to have organized "The Playground Association of Porto Rico." Three playgrounds have been started and the secretary, Alexander H. Leo, of Ponce, is asking for \$2,300 in order to open more playgrounds conducted upon the school city plan.

Work With Boys.—The International Committee of the Y. M. C. A., 3 West 29th street, New York, has in press a valuable and exhaustive bibliography of work with boys, which has been compiled by J. T. Bowne of the International Y. M. C. A. Historical Library, Springfield.

Jewish Home for the Aged.—The dedication exercises of the Beth Moshab Z'Bainim, of Pittsburg, the Jewish Home for the Aged, occurred on June 24 and continued until June 27. The Hebrew residents of western Pennsylvania, West Virginia and eastern Ohio organized a few months ago and purchased the Jones homestead in Center avenue for the proposed institution. Among those interested in the institution are: Rabbi A. M. Ashinsky, Henry Jackson, Dr. Henry Finkelpearl, Simon D. Rosenfield, L. I. Sablodowsky and J. Kornblum.

New Commissions in New York State.—Governor Higgins of New York has appointed the following as members of commissions created by acts of the last legislature:

Bronx Park Commission: Madison Grant, James G. Cannon and Dave Hennen Morris, all of New York.

State Prison Site Commission: John G. Wyckser, Buffalo; C. V. Collins, Troy; Elisha M. Johnson, Olean; Samuel J. Barrows and Edwin O. Holter, New York.

Commission to Prepare Census of Blind: Dr. F. Park Lewis, Buffalo; Eben P. Morford, Brooklyn, and William J. McClusky, Syracuse.

New Playgrounds for St. Louis.—At a recent meeting of the executive committee of the St. Louis Playground Association a committee reported on the locations of six open-air playgrounds, four school playgrounds and two vacation schools. The heads for the various committees were appointed as follows: Finance, Dwight F. Davis; location, Miss McCulloch; instruction, Mrs. F. P. Crunden; equipment, Eugene F. Wilson; vacation schools, Paul Blackwelder; excursion, Mrs. H. S. Levy; garden and library, Mrs. Sidy; legislation, Luther E. Smith; athletic, H. Grover Cleveland.

Dr. Brackett Nominated.—Governor Guild has nominated Dr. Jeffrey R. Brackett director of the Boston School for Social Workers, as member of the Massachusetts State Board of Charities, vice, Dr. Edward Hitchcock, who declined reappointment. This appointment comes as gracious recognition of efficient service while resident of another state—Maryland. Besides his work in private charity and in emergencies such as the hard times in '93 and '94 and the Baltimore fire, he was the first president of the Department of Charities and Corrections of Baltimore under the new charter. Dr. Brackett's name is one, however, long identified with philanthropic work in Massachusetts. The old family home in Quincy is now held by the Brackett Charitable Trust for charitable and educational purposes, and is used by a large organization of women in Quincy for meetings, lectures, etc., and partly as home and office of the visiting nurse for sick poor of Quincy.

The New York School of Philanthropy

The enrolment for the school year 1906-7 has begun and there are a number of applications on file for scholarships.

Many of the students of the class of '06 went directly from the school to positions of more or less importance. There were several requests for graduates for positions which had to go unfilled.

The demand seems greatest for people to fill such positions as those of Charity Organization Society Secretary, Club Worker, and Financial Secretary. It seems reasonable to say that any bright young man or woman with the requisite natural qualifications, good academic preparation and one year's hard study and field work with the school, is certain of an opportunity for a career at very reasonable compensation.

For enrolment blanks, further particulars, etc., address the Director.

EDWARD T. DEVINE,
105 E. 22nd St.,
New York.

Personal interviews may be had, by appointment, during July with Mr. Carl Kelsey, Associate Director, at the above address.

HOUSES SUPPLYING CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS

To secure a place in this Directory the name of a Supply House must be submitted by an Institution purchasing from it, and known to the publishers of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS. Published every Saturday.

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HAMMACHER, SCHLEMMER & CO.,
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HULL, GRIPPEN & CO.,
310 Third avenue, New York.

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Employment Exchange.

Address all communications to Miss Helen M. Kelsey, Editor Employment Exchange Department of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, Room 535, 156 Fifth Avenue. Kindly enclose postage if a reply is desired.

The advertisements of the Employment Exchange Department will be discontinued for a few weeks. Meantime the work of the Department goes on as usual.

Both employers and candidates are invited to make their needs known, so that, at the opening of the busy season (about August 1st) the Editor may be in a position to act promptly.

State Charities Aid Association

I. Inspection and Improvement of Public Institutions

The first object of the association is to improve the condition of public charitable institutions in the state of New York. It has 1,000 volunteer visitors in fifty different counties. Through these and through its office staff it visits state hospitals for the insane, state charitable institutions, county, city and town almshouses and public hospitals. The number of inmates of such institutions exceeds 47,000, and they cost the public over \$8,000,000 a year. This voluntary co-operation of private citizens with public officials is a work of practical patriotism and has greatly improved the administration of state, county and municipal charities.

II. Charity Legislation

Besides framing and securing the passage of needed legislation, the association examine carefully all bills relating to charitable matters (about 100 each year), and takes such action as may be advisable to secure their passage, amendment or defeat. Its independence of official appointment and of the public treasury gives it a peculiarly favorable position for legislative work.

III. Placing Destitute Children in Families

Orphans, foundlings and permanently deserted children are received from public officials and from institutions in which they are supported by public funds, and are placed in carefully selected permanent free homes usually in the country. Many of them are legally adopted. Five hundred and fifty-six children, received since August, 1898, from many different counties, have been placed in free family homes in all parts of this state, and in several other states.

IV. Providing Situations for Mothers with Babies

Homeless mothers with infants or small children received from public maternity hospitals, infant and foundling asylums, and charitable societies, are provided with situations in the country, keeping their children; 590 situations were provided last year; nine children died while with their mothers in situations (death-rate a little over one per cent); in institutions for children of this age the death-rate is very high. The average cost of each mother and baby under our care last year was \$3.72.

V. Boarding Motherless Infants in Families

A joint committee of this Association and the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor receives foundlings, abandoned and other motherless babies from the Department of Public Charities, and places them in carefully selected suburban families to board until they are strong enough to be placed in permanent free homes for adoption; the mortality among the foundlings has thus been reduced to eleven per cent; 327 babies were under care last year. In addition to what the city pays towards the board of the children, the annual cost of the work to the Joint Committee is \$5,000.00.

Total number of children under the supervision of the Association, October 1, 1905, 1,220. If supported in institutions, they would cost the public \$122,000 per year.

ALL BRANCHES OF THE ASSOCIATION'S WORK ARE SUPPORTED BY VOLUNTARY CONTRIBUTIONS

The total expenses are \$30,000 per year. Contributions of any amount will be gratefully received. Checks should be made payable to Charles S. Fairchild, treasurer, Room 702, No. 105 East Twenty-second street. Special contributions for Nos. III, IV or V, (see above) should be so designated. Clothing for women and children, especially babies, is also desired.

105 EAST TWENTY-SECOND STREET, NEW YORK

Please mention CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS when writing to advertisers.

TO PHILANTHROPIC WORKERS:

WHEN you find children living in a state of neglect and it becomes your aim to uplift the family through the children, we ask that you bear in mind that you have at command the medium of the day and evening industrial schools of the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, where the children receive not only an elementary education of mind and hand, but also a moral uplift and an appreciation of the importance of regularity and the value of steady work as well as a knowledge of a higher standard of living. For the children who do not receive proper nourishment at home, hot dinners are provided in the schools, and the parents in times of sickness or adversity are advised and materially assisted by the teachers, acting as settlement workers and tactful household visitors. More than 10,000 children attended these industrial schools during the year, including 4,000 in the kindergartens; 269 crippled children and fifty-one mentally defective children in special classes, and 140 truant boys in handicrafts.

ORPHANS and abandoned children should be placed out in good, carefully selected family homes in the country. This is the most satisfactory work accomplished by the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY. It is strikingly successful in results, for the orphan or abandoned child is transplanted from the worst environment to the best. During the last year 668 children were placed in families for adoption.

HOMELESS AND WAYWARD BOYS are given a period of probation at our Brace Farm School before homes on farms are sought for them. During the year 701 boys were trained and placed in families.

WILLFUL AND DISOBEDIENT GIRLS are given a training in housework at our Elizabeth Home, No. 307 East Twelfth Street. Last year 235 girls were trained and placed in situations.

DISPOSSESSED MOTHERS with children are cared for temporarily at our Mothers' Home, No. 311 East Twelfth Street. To 466 helpless mothers and children shelter was given during the year.

WE INVITE your co-operation. The list of industrial schools and temporary homes will be sent on application to the Secretary, Mr. C. L. Brace, at the central office, 105 East Twenty-second Street, and information will be cheerfully given.

TO THE PUBLIC:

CONTRIBUTIONS in aid of this great work will be gratefully received by Mr. A. B. HEPBURN, Treasurer of the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, at 105 East Twenty-second Street. Clothing and shoes are greatly needed, and partly worn articles will prove acceptable, as the garments will be repaired in our sewing classes, and the shoes put in condition by the boys of the cobbling classes. Old magazines, books and toys will also be welcome.

105 EAST TWENTY-SECOND STREET, NEW YORK

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Graham Taylor, Associate
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Work of
Rehabilitation in
San Francisco

Public announcement was made in San Francisco in July that the bread line and the clothes line would be discontinued on August 1, thus finishing the wholesale work of relief so far as these two necessities of life are concerned. The same date marks the withdrawal of Edward T. Devine as special agent of the American National Red Cross and as executive officer and member of various emergency bodies.

There remains the important problem of housing the five or ten thousand people of San Francisco who are without permanent shelter, before the inclement weather of next winter sets in. A comprehensive report was made early in July in behalf of the Executive Commission and the Rehabilitation Committee, by Dr. Devine, as chairman of both bodies. Although nearly half of the long summer, which fortunately lay between April and the winter season, had elapsed, no real beginning had as yet been made by private enterprise or otherwise in the erection of dwellings. The constructive recommendations of this report were made the basis of favorable action by the Finance Committee at a meeting on July 13, and initiated a far-reaching scheme of rehabilitation.

The first problem considered was the care of those who are entirely dependent. These are the aged and infirm, the chronic invalids and other adult dependent persons for whom it is not so much a question of rehabilitation as of permanent maintenance. The Finance Com-

mittee set aside \$100,000 for the immediate construction of a building or pavilion on the Alms House Tract of San Francisco, to afford accommodation for 1000 people. The committee also set aside \$150,000 for the construction and repair of temporary buildings in the public parks to afford shelter for the homeless during the coming winter.

The more serious problem concerned families who ordinarily pay a moderate rental, who do not own land and have no considerable savings, but who are in receipt of ordinary wages. It was estimated that there are at least 5000 such families in the tents or temporary shelters already provided. It is obvious that the tents which have been in use many months will not be sufficient shelter for the coming winter. In addition to these 5000 it is probable that a large number of those who were dwelling in San Francisco at the time of the earthquake, are still in the surrounding towns and will return. To meet this necessity, it was determined to form an incorporated body to consist of the members of the Finance Committee of the Relief and Red Cross Funds, together with the governor of the state of California and the mayor of the city of San Francisco. An executive committee of three will have full power to transact business subject to the supervision and approval of the Board of Directors. The Finance Committee voted to turn over to the new corporation \$2,500,000, to be used in the acquisition of tracts of land in suitable and convenient locations in the city

and in the erection of buildings thereon for dwelling purposes, such buildings to be either cottages, two-story dwellings, or flats containing apartments of from three to six rooms and bath. These buildings will be sold for cash or upon the instalment plan to *bona fide* residents of San Francisco. All money returned to the fund is to be reinvested in the same manner as the original fund until such time as the rehabilitation of San Francisco shall have been accomplished. Money then in the treasury is to be disposed of in some way for the benefit of the people of the city and county of San Francisco.

Two other funds were provided for. There were a large number of working men and others of small means, who owned their own homes in the old San Francisco. The committee felt that it was of first importance to establish these people again on their original holdings. In order that this might be done as expeditiously as possible, the committee set aside \$500,000, from which will be given to each lot owner a sum equal to one-third of the cost of the building he constructs on his lot in the burned district. Such donation will not exceed \$500 in any one case, and no more than one donation will be given to any one person or family. In order to protect the contractor and to expedite the building, this money is to be turned over to the contractor at the completion of the building. Another fund of \$500,000 is set aside to make loans to any resident of San Francisco, either owner or tenant, whose place of residence was burned in the great fire. These loans can be used in building new dwellings anywhere in San Francisco on lots owned by the person or family to whom they are made. The owner may borrow one-third of the entire cost of the building, provided it does not at any time exceed \$1000 and no more than one loan is to be made to the person or family. As security for the loan, a second mortgage is to be taken upon the building and lot and if necessary the borrower is to pay five per cent. net interest.

To quote from the report to the Finance Committee:—

The essential thing at this time is that, at the earliest possible moment some of the funds which are now lying idle in the treasury of the Finance Committee, shall be put at work providing homes for the working people of the community. The plan which we have recommended is proposed, first, as a relief measure because the tents will not provide proper shelter after October; second, as a measure of public policy, because in the interests of the community it is not desirable that San Francisco shall lose her present population of working people merely because there are not dwellings to be rented or bought; third, also as a measure of public policy, because it is desirable that workmen shall have the opportunity to own their homes, and this opportunity is now afforded not on a charitable but on a reasonable and just business basis; and finally, because the intelligent and efficient carrying out of the plan proposed will enable the community to set a standard of attractive, sanitary, safe and yet comparatively inexpensive dwellings which will have a beneficial effect, not only in the immediate future but for the coming generation. The co-operation of the municipal administration in enforcing suitable conditions as to sanitation, light, ventilation, fire protection, etc.; of the architects in making plans for convenient and attractive homes at moderate cost; of the building trades in getting these homes built; and of the Finance Committee in advancing capital and creating a corporation which will ensure the purchasers against fraud or injustice will solve the housing problem and nothing less than this co-operation will solve it. In closing his report, however, the Rehabilitation Committee and the Relief Commission alike wish to emphasize the fact that there is no intention that the relief fund shall become a providence of the refugees, solving all their difficulties and relieving them of all individual responsibility. On the contrary, it is confidently expected that each family will to the greatest possible extent solve its own problem, find its own capital, decide on the plans for its own house, discharge its obligations for any money advanced as soon as practicable, and that if these recommendations are adopted the entire business will be so conducted by the Rehabilitation Committee, the Executive Commission and the corporation formed for the purpose of acquiring land and building homes, as to preserve in full integrity the fundamental traits of American character, individual initiative and personal responsibility.

A group of expert workers in organized charity was called to San Francisco early in the summer from Chicago, Boston, Brooklyn, New York, Philadelphia and Baltimore to undertake the difficult case work in connection with closing immediate relief and with permanently rehabilitating stricken families.

**Dairy
Specials.**

Perhaps it was Dr. Johnson who was first called "an encyclopedia in boots." But many of the pioneer communities of the Middle West in the days when books and libraries were few, boasted of some one to whom the name was tagged and whose journeyings partook of the nature of an itinerant information bureau. Those who are looking for analogies can find one in such distinctly modern contrivances as the milk special which has played a part in the Maryland clean milk campaign. Dairy specials are not new, but this was the first one run in Maryland and meant to the outlying country districts what the milk show meant to the city people. The institution is a cross between a technical school on wheels and a political stumping tour; and the courses of instruction are minutes rather than semesters.

To describe this one—the milk special was organized by Director William R. Amoss of the Farmers' Institute, and Professor H. J. Patterson, director of the Agricultural College Experiment Station. First of all, the territory to be covered was thoroughly advertised. The itinerary of the train was announced and the names of the speakers, farmers being advised to meet the train at the points and times designated. The train carried two passenger coaches, and one of these was used as an auditorium car. The stop at each station was forty minutes. There were two speakers at each point. Each of them was to conclude his remarks in fifteen minutes, five minutes being allowed for the people to get into the car before the first lecture, and an equal time for the people to get out after the second lecture. In this way anywhere from fifteen to twenty-one stops were made in a day. This particular special covered the Western Maryland and Northern Central Railways—about sixty-five or seventy miles out from Baltimore. The speakers were Dr. John S. Fulton of the State Board of Health; Dr. C. Hampson Jones, assistant commissioner of health of Baltimore, and Jared Van Wagenen, a large milk producer of New York. As many as sixty people could be gotten into the car for the purpose of hearing a lecture. At some stations there were no more

than twenty, but they were all farmers and milk producers. The talks were published in a number of local papers and in spirit and substance were of the sort which makes every word count. The purpose of the special was to tell the farmers of Maryland of the increasing demand for milk in Baltimore and of the necessity for greater care in the production of milk.

**The Albany
Prison
Congress.**

This year's meeting of the National Prison Association will be held September 15-20, at Albany, New York, under the presidency of Cornelius B. Collins. A special effort is being made which should result in the presence of an unusual number of officials, representatives of state governments, members of boards, judges of courts, and others. The New York legislature has made an appropriation, Governor Higgins will deliver the address of welcome, Bishop Doane, the conference sermon, and altogether the plans are promising. Sunday evening, the 16th, a popular meeting will be held, to be addressed by former Governor Frank S. Black and Dr. Charles R. Henderson of Chicago. At the Wardens' Association Monday, Warden H. N. Jones of Fort Madison, Iowa, John P. McDonough of Albany, and R. H. C. Crawford, Chief Gaoler, Nassau, N. P., Bahama Islands, will speak. In the evening Mrs. Maud Ballington Booth will deliver an address. The Chaplains' Association meets Tuesday, with addresses by Chaplain Batt of Concord, Mass., and Chaplain Edgin of Jeffersonville, Ind., and with an address by Supt. Scott of Elmira Reformatory on *The Chaplain From the Warden's Point of View*. Mayor Z. R. Brockway of Elmira and Dr. Frederick Howard Wines will speak in the evening. Prison sanitation, the tuberculosis problem, and mental defect among criminals will be discussed at the Physicians' Association on Wednesday, and at the concluding general sessions Wednesday and Thursday strong reports and papers on practical questions will lead up to a popular meeting on Thursday evening. Further information as to the

conference may be obtained from Amos W. Butler, general secretary, Indianapolis, Ind.

**The New
Massachusetts
Commission
for the Blind.**

In pursuance of legislation passed by the recent General Assembly, Governor Guild of Massachusetts has appointed a permanent commission for the blind. Its membership is of an exceptional order. In the first place, it includes Miss Annette P. Rogers, who did efficient work as a member of the State Board of Charities before she herself was afflicted with blindness. Through her own misfortune, she brings a valuable point of view to the problems with which this new commission has to deal. Again, a second member of the commission is Miss Helen Keller, whose life history is itself one of the greatest triumphs of education in this field. With these will be associated Dr. E. M. Hartwell of Boston, who was chairman of the temporary Commission to Investigate the Condition of the Adult Blind; Dr. J. H. A. Matte of North Adams, one of the best-known physicians in western Massachusetts; and Robert L. Raymond, secretary of the Massachusetts Association for Promoting the Interests of the Blind, and known for his work also as counsel for the Civic League.

The work outlined by the commission has been characterized as the sanest, most progressive and healthful plan which has been put forward to improve the conditions of the adult blind, and it is especially gracious that the state has called to its service in this field those who are themselves handicapped, as well qualified—in some respects better qualified than those with sight. It is significant also that the commission is largely made up of men and women identified with the newer movements in New England for the blind.

In a letter to Governor Guild, Miss Keller says:

I cannot refrain from expressing to you my keen interest in the appointment of the new commission to aid the blind. It is an event charged with great meaning to all the sightless, and to their friends who have thought, planned and labored so earnestly for the betterment of their condition. At last my long hope is fulfilled, that the blind

may be strengthened to master by the useful toil of their hands the calamity which has robbed them of their equality with their seeing fellow-citizens.

**Placing the
Handicapped.**

Three months' experience in its new "Employment Department for the Handicapped" has convinced the Chicago Bureau of Charities that a special effort to place cripples and aged persons back into regular industry is eminently worth while.

One hundred and sixty letters were sent out to employers in lines regarded suitable for persons not normal physically or otherwise. Further publicity was given to the movement by the newspapers, which seemed attracted by its unique nature. Then came the applicants, the lame, the blind, the halt, by the score, some of them from the poor house; and the calls from philanthropically inclined employers, first slowly, then in rapidly increasing number. At first the coupling between the two was done rather crudely, owing to the pressure from both sides, but as nearly as possible the kind of man called for was sent out in every instance, this without special investigation and on a clear understanding with the employer that the Bureau could not give a full history of the man sent him. But since the initial rush ended, the aim has been to make a careful inquiry of the honesty, sobriety and ability of each person asking for special forms of employment, and to furnish a frank statement to the employer in each case.

The results thus far attained have encouraged the managers to such an extent as to lead to the determination to place the department upon a permanent basis.

The following figures relating to the work are not absolutely accurate, because of the lack of time to make a full and correct compilation but they are sufficiently sound to give a fair idea of proportions:—

Number of applications since May 1....	350
“ different employers calling for workers	90
“ situations offered by these employers	110
“ persons sent to fill situations..	130
“ persons who began work.....	98
“ persons who refused positions. or were rejected by employers	32

The table indicates that something more than a third of all applicants were put at work, a proportion much higher than was expected. Of course, some of these will not "stick" or will not be kept by employers for one or several of many possible reasons, and will need to be replaced. So far eight men have been placed a second time. On the other hand, in a number of instances, word has been received from both master and man that each is well satisfied with the other and that a happy combination has been effected.

Some examples of the "couplings" made are these:

One-armed men—placed as doortenders and watchmen.

One-legged men and certain forms of rheumatics—placed at wiring together wax figures.

Man without arms—set up in news-stand.

Old men—placed with A. D. Telegraph Co., arranging call boxes and keeping tallies.

Old men—placed with department house as bundle checkers.

Deaf man with club feet—placed as an office letter filer.

Man without legs—placed as candy wrapper.

Old men of genteel type—placed as personal attendants to men invalids.

**Expansion in
Sociology at
the University
of Missouri.**

Through the enlightened policy of the president and board of curators of the University of Missouri, the work of the department of sociology of that institution has been recently so expanded that it will be more nearly adequate to meet the needs of the state. It has long been the idea of President Jesse that the university should serve the social interests of the people as well as their material needs; that the work of the department of sociology should culminate in public service, just as the work in the physical sciences culminates in service to the agricultural, industrial, and other economic interests of the people. The present head of the department, Professor Charles A. Ellwood, has been in hearty sympathy with this policy, and has carried out important practical investigations in the almshouses and county jails of the state. With the appointment of Thomas J. Riley, who holds a doctor's degree in sociology from the Univers-

ity of Chicago, as an additional instructor, it will be more nearly possible for the department to carry out a state-wide plan. Besides giving additional courses on philanthropic and social work in the university, Dr. Riley will spend a large part of his time in university extension work along social lines. It is hoped, not only to establish university extension centers in Kansas City and St. Louis, for systematic instruction in public and private philanthropy, but to lecture in all the county seats of the state, on the proper management of local charitable and correctional institutions. Here Dr. Riley will work in co-operation with the Missouri State Board of Charities.

**The Rand
School for
Socialists.**

The Rand School of Social Science is the name of the pioneer academic undertaking in this country to teach political and social science from the standpoint of socialism. The school is located at 112 East 19th street, New York, and is made possible by the foundation bequeathed by Mrs. Carrie A. Rand. W. J. Ghent, author of *Our Benevolent Futilism*, is secretary, and a prospectus outlines the work to be taken up largely in evening courses. As this is the first concerted venture by radical theorists in the field of instruction other than through popular mediums, the working out of the curriculum is of rather unique interest.

Of systematic study courses requiring the use of text books, examinations, etc., seven are announced—history of socialism by Morris Hillquit, author of *The History of American Socialism*; an introduction to socialism by Mr. Ghent; a course on industrial development and economic theory by Algernon Lee, editor of *The Worker*; treatment of the more fundamental socialist theories in the light of recent data, by Lucien Saniel, author of the series of statistical socialist posters published by the International School of Social Science; a course on the evolution of the state, by Dr. Charles A. Beard of Columbia University. To improve the mechanics of propaganda there are two courses—composition and rhetoric, and elocution

and public speaking. Four lecture conference courses are announced, less academic than the first group—the first by Professor Franklin H. Giddings on the principles of sociology, the second on ethics by Dr. David Saville Muzzey of the New York School of Commerce, the third on social theories and movements, “anarchism, single-tax and reformism;” and the fourth on social history by Algernon Lee.

Formal lectures are announced on socialism and art by John Ward Stimson, George Willis Cook; on women and economics by Mrs. Charlotte Perkins Gilman; on proletarian diseases by Dr. P. A. Levene; and on immigration by Emily Greene Balch.

Members of the socialist party get a rebate on tuition—a discrimination which is respectfully referred to the Interstate Commerce Commission—and text books are furnished at cost.

**The Hampton
Negro
Conference.**

That the exhibit plan, which has proved so successful in milk shows, tuberculosis exhibitions, labor museums, and the like, can be put to widespread educational uses was shown by this year's Negro Conference at Hampton. The work of the conference includes the investigation of conditions, the popular presentation of facts, and the encouragement of reform efforts. This year's meeting was largely given over to the second line through the extensive use of exhibits and inspection tours to the farm, gardens, laboratories, and barns of the school. At every session there was a photograph, chart, or diagram presentation of the facts explained by the speakers. There was a model house for the delegates to examine and there were demonstrations as to improved methods in ventilating a room.

The general plan covered four topics: agriculture, housing, health and the minister, and in addition to these, three others were considered at round-table meetings. The subjects and leaders were as follows: *How Can the Women Help?* Mrs. Harris Barrett; *Insurance and Banking*, W. P. Burrell, and *Legal Imposition*, W. Ashbie Hawkins.

Dr. Frissell in his opening remarks

urged that a note of hope for the future of the race might be sounded by the conference—hope based upon knowledge of remarkable progress already made and upon the determination to find a way or make it in the future. George Foster Peabody emphasized the importance of friendly relations between the colored people and the Southern whites, which he held will be much helped by increasing the efficiency of the working classes who are the one great class yet in touch with the white people of the South.

The men and women in attendance were about five hundred in number—farmers, teachers, lawyers, doctors, and ministers—who had come to exchange experiences in work in behalf of their people. In the plans for the coming year the work of forming local conferences is to receive special attention. Many of the delegates expressed their determination to arouse their localities to the need of concerted action for purchase of land, the improvement of the soil, the encouragement of education, the decrease of the death rate, the saving of money, and, “most important of all, the increase of righteousness in the hearts of the people.” To this end the Hampton Conference plans to send its exhibits on housing, health, farming, and education, its free literature and its teachers, to any community which requests assistance in the formation of a local conference.

Of the resolutions passed, these may be quoted:—

Since the excessive mortality of the Negro population depends on causes which are largely preventable, it is the sense of the conference that more systematic efforts be made to disseminate among the people information on sanitation and hygiene, the proper care of infants, good diet, the evils of the drug habit, and the pernicious effect of the indiscriminate use of patent medicines and other flagrant violations of the laws of health, all of which are contributive causes of the high mortality.

Since there is no evil sapping the intellectual, spiritual, and physical strength of our people more than alcoholic drinks, be it resolved that it is the sense of this conference to lift up its voice in condemnation of the drink habit.

We encourage the formation of building and loan associations by the colored people upon the latest and most improved plans.

We encourage the establishment of banks in all of our communities where the popula-

tion will warrant it and urge the utmost care in the management of the same.

As a large proportion of the colored population must for years live by domestic service, we encourage the establishment of training classes for the different forms of domestic service in our localities and urge that every effort be put forth to raise the standard of domestic service.

We feel that Negroes should do all in their power in the way of organized charity and undertake systematic work to prevent crime. We recommend, therefore, renewed attempts at the organization of Negro charities and renewed interest in movements looking to the prevention and punishment of crime, the reformation of youthful criminals, and the improvement of the sanitary conditions of jails and poorhouses.

We urge the formation of land companies wherever practicable, under efficient and economical management. Where it is impracticable to organize land companies, we urge the organization of land clubs for the buying of land in groups.

The Public Duty of Public Service

Graham Taylor

To be a citizen is to do more than vote. To be a "good citizen" means more than paying your taxes and keeping out of a police court. There are many more duties involved in being a member of any civilized community, than you can be fined for not doing. There are many more obligations, imposed by it, than you will be arrested for defaulting upon. Most citizens have sense or selfishness enough, though some have not, to sweep their sidewalks clean, and clear them of snow, because they want others to do it too. Most householders feel bound to keep their garbage cans from being a nuisance to their neighbors, who in turn might annoy them, if they did not.

But public spirit is a public duty. To look to the general welfare is the part of good citizenship. To promote the greatest good to the greatest number is a human, not to say religious obligation.

While some of these specific public duties can be done better by others for us than we can do them ourselves, yet we cannot rightfully lay off the duty of having them done, upon them or anyone else. We cannot do our own charity by proxy. Whoever may spend the money more wisely than we, whoever can find out the real needs, and the needy who

suffer, better than we, it is for each one of us, at least to be charitable, to see to it that the need is found out, and that the needy are relieved. We may subscribe to the charitable societies and funds, and we should do so as a public duty. But our duty to the public does not end there. Their agents are really more ours than theirs. What is done or left undone by others, we do or leave undone ourselves. Most of these societies have volunteer friendly visitors to see and feel for themselves, and "decision's committees" to decide what these agents of the givers ought to do. In Germany this friendly visiting is as much a part of the citizen's legal duty as serving on juries, or responding to calls to preserve the public peace. The citizen is drafted once in so often to assist what we would call our county agent or poormaster. We may be moved by pity for fatherless and motherless children to support orphan asylums. But our duty to the orphans and to the community is not done then. We should satisfy ourselves that the good care they get when little, be extended to them as they get older, and follow them to the home and work in which they are "placed out."

You have a glow of kindly feeling, not to say pride, when the blue garb of a visiting nurse, or the black habit of a sister of charity flit by you as these ministrants of mercy pass on their errand of healing. But why is the burden of the sufferers to whom they are going upon them, or those who support them more than upon you? Your own parlor or club may throw less of a shadow on your heart, because you know of the bright neighborhood centers in the less privileged places, which cannot be accounted for except by the toil and sacrifice of others. But should the shadow lift until you ask yourself why you are not one of them, to join heart and hand on the equal terms of giving and taking, with those who only want help to help themselves?

We can get some impulse and training for public duty through personal experience at these points of contact with human need. But should we not want to do it more quickly and on a broader scale? Should we not want to know what others are doing, what their ex-

periences have been, how their successes or failures have come about? Should we not want to fit ourselves to take our own part effectively in such volunteer public duty? If adapted to do so, should some of us not aspire to train ourselves to enter the service of the state or city institutions, under the guarantee of an honorable and public position, open in the order of examination rank to the eligible list of applicants? Or cannot more of us prepare to discharge the sacred trust of private or church charities as their paid or volunteer administrators? Having a public spirit is an obligation to put it to use in public service.

Here's to Oregon!

Florence Kelley

News of unusual importance comes from Oregon. The supreme court of that state has sustained the statute which restricts to ten hours the working day of women in mechanical establishments. A case against a laundry proprietor, charged with requiring his women employes to work longer than ten hours in one day, has ended in the decision by the court that the law is constitutional. The peculiar significance of this decision, at this moment, lies in the fact that there is pending in the courts of New York a case, which will ultimately reach the Court of Appeals, involving the question whether it is constitutional to prohibit the employment of women after ten o'clock at night in manufacture.

Every decision by a court of last resort in any state dealing with this problem at this time must either confirm—as does this Oregon decision—the old established, humane, precedent of Massachusetts (in the case of the Commonwealth *vs.* the Hamilton Mfg. Co., 1876) upholding the statutory restriction upon the working day of women in manufacture to ten in twenty-four; or it must sustain the reactionary and cruel decision of the Supreme Court of Illinois (Ritchie *vs.* the People, 1895). There is no third choice. The Illinois precedent has, happily, not been followed in any case known to the writer. It re-

mains alone, awaiting reversal by a court of more modern mind than that which has left the working women of Illinois for eleven years at the mercy of every employer who has chosen to require them to work unlimited hours on pain of "finding some other job."

Every person interested in the health and morals of working people will rejoice over the enlightened decision of the Supreme Court of Oregon.

The Milk Campaign in Maryland

H. Wirt Steele

Secretary Maryland Association for the Prevention and Relief of Tuberculosis

The awakening on the part of a considerable portion of the public of Maryland to the consciousness that each citizen is in some measure his brother's keeper; the quickening of the civic conscience in a large group of people explains the movement which brought about the recent series of lectures on the production, distribution and consumption of milk and the Maryland Milk Exhibition which followed them in Baltimore.

Two and a half years ago some two hundred citizens of Maryland learned the great lesson of their individual responsibility, and the value of working together, in an effort to solve questions affecting the health and living conditions of the people. At that time they worked shoulder to shoulder in holding the Baltimore Tuberculosis Exhibition (the initial effort of its kind in the United States). Its success in awakening popular interest and in helping shape public opinion, impelled the leaders to pursue the idea still further. A tentative program of public education embracing numerous subjects which vitally affect the public health, physical and moral, was laid out.

The subject of milk supply seemed to be the one most closely related to the tuberculosis problem in many ways, and it was deemed the one which most naturally should receive consideration next. The lectures and subsequent exhibition were attended by several thou-

sand people representing various groups, such as public officials, dairymen, milk dealers, physicians and nurses, and laymen.

Just what results may come from this campaign it will take time to develop. Unquestionably public officials learned the necessity for a more rigid inspection of the milk supply. Up to this time such inspection, by the state or municipality was shown to have been inadequate. Without any additional legislation the State Board of Health of Maryland will soon begin gathering information concerning the source of supply throughout the state. The Department of Health of Baltimore city has already begun a systematic bacteriological test, although no standard has yet been fixed by ordinance. From these investigations may be expected some definite and adequate program of supervision later on.

The educational gains of the campaign thus far seem to have been shared by dairymen, physicians and nurses and the lay public. Dairymen throughout the state are reported to be engaged in bettering the conditions and care of their

stock and the handling of their milk.

Physicians and nurses learned a great deal about milk, more especially in its relation to infant feeding and infant mortality. Physicians, especially, are demanding more so-called "certified milk" than has been or is now produced in the state. The effect of this demand will probably result in the organization of a voluntary medical milk commission.

The average layman is taking more thought concerning the milk which he uses than he ever did before. He is questioning his milk dealer about any milk which appears to be under grade. In short, he is fixing an arbitrary standard of cleanliness and purity which will eventually force producers to supply clean milk at a reasonable price.

Like all educational movements this campaign for clean milk will eventually produce results as yet not dreamed of; but on the whole, perhaps the most desirable thing which has been gained is the strengthening of the co-operative relations in the group of people who were responsible for the movement.

IF SHE WOULD LAY THE HORN ASIDE FOR A MOMENT—



SHE MIGHT BE ABLE TO HEAR THE CHILDREN'S CRY.—

THE CHICAGO DAILY NEWS.

The Baltimore Milk Show



A Model Nursery.—Here is illustrated the appropriate furniture for an infant's apartment. It is not an attempt to show a model nursery, but rather to show what range of choice is afforded in the furnishing of such a room. The white covered object at the lower right hand corner is a home-made crèche or incubator for premature infants. This exhibit and the one previously described were under the control of a special committee on infant feeding, consisting of physicians and nurses.



An Infant's Milk Dispensary.—In this corner of the Donovan Room in McCoy Hall an Infant's Milk Dispensary was installed, and every day during the Milk Exhibition instructions were given by a corps of physicians and nurses concerning the feeding of infants. Just outside the dispensary seats were placed for an audience of twenty-five or thirty women, and a clinic was held every day, infants being brought to the clinic from the nearby dispensaries. The necessary apparatus for preparing infant's milk are arranged next to the wall on the left of the picture, and scales, a sterilizer, and some other apparatus on the table just to the right of the center. A long showcase just outside of the dispensary rail contains a collection of proprietary infant foods. At the rear of the room is seen a small part of the exhibit in chemistry, and the closed door opens into the exhibit on Pathology and Bacteriology. The screen on the right of the picture divides the Milk Dispensary from the Model Nursery, which is described in the next picture.

The Baltimore Milk Show



The right-hand half of this picture shows the Exhibit of the New York City Health Department, including the model of a dairy barn, cast in plaster. Part of the Baltimore exhibit is visible on the wall above this easel. The large object just to the left of the center carries three drawings of a model dairy barn as planned by the United States Department of Agriculture. The easel at the left of the picture shows a small part of the exhibit from Schools of Dairying.

A Part of the Exhibit in the Chemistry of Milk.—Demonstrations were given here daily during the Exhibition by a committee of chemists and physicians.



This collection of pictures, toys, and other objects illustrates the dairy customs in many parts of the world. Beyond the screen in the center of the picture are found the exhibits of certain American cities. Boston, St. Louis, Philadelphia, Rochester and Cincinnati. The screens at the far end of the picture show one end of the exhibit in the statistics of milk and milk products. The pictures illustrating the dairy conditions in and around Baltimore were on the opposite corridor wall, and are not seen in the picture.



The Baltimore Milk Show



Apparatus and Milk Products.—The easel on the left of this picture carries photographs of a number of model dairies. Beyond this one sees a collection of milk cans, milking pails, and other dairy utensils. The nearest table in the center shows a collection of milk bottles which have been more or less badly used by consumers. The next table beyond carries the approved utensils for the domestic care of milk. The next table beyond carries a large collection of cheeses. Beyond that is a large table on which was displayed part of the exhibit in the technical uses of milk. Beyond that and screen in the center at the rear contains an exhibit of dairy foods, and at the left of this there was an exhibit of Von Behring's Bovo-Vaccine. At the right of the picture one sees certain approved forms of separators. The poster partly shown on the extreme right of the picture marks the entrance into the model kitchen where daily demonstrations were given on the culinary uses of milk.



The Laboratory of the Pathology and Bacteriology of Milk.—Demonstrations were given daily in the afternoon and evening in this laboratory by a committee of pathologists and bacteriologists. One-half of the microscopical shelf is seen at the upper right-hand corner of the picture, the window curtain being drawn down. The row of test tubes seen on the table in the foreground contains specimens of a great many cheese molds and an extensive collection of the bacteria of milk, butter and cheese, and of the microscopic organisms which produce anomalous, or poisonous, or infectious milk. The glass dishes at the farther end of this table are plate cultures showing the bacteria found in milk, and in the air of barns, stables, and milk houses. On the near end of the farther table one sees the apparatus used by the Philadelphia Department of Health in determining the bacterial quality of milk. The specimen jars beyond contain a variety of pathologic specimens. A more important collection of pathological specimens in the same room is not shown in the picture. The two shelves of jars in the upper left-hand corner of the picture show the daily per capita consumption of milk in forty American cities. The actual amount of milk is in each jar.

What the Public Ought to Know as to Milk

John S. Fulton, M.D.

Secretary, State Board of Health of Maryland

[This was the introductory lecture in a course of ten given under the auspices of the Maryland State Board of Health, and outlining the general scope and purpose of the investigation entered upon by a group of citizens. These lectures led up to the milk exhibition. They are printed on the following pages in abstracts prepared especially to meet the needs of the lay reader in an appreciation of the problems of milk supply.]

Some time ago a talented Boston woman, a writer of more than local fame, called on a distinguished hygienist seeking authoritative information on pure foods. She professed a lively interest in this subject, and the hygienist responded with great enthusiasm. He said that milk surpasses all other food-stuffs in its potency for good or evil, that a considerable part of the current sickness and mortality of Boston is due to bad milk, and that a great many lives, particularly of infants, would be saved if intelligent people, women especially, would inform themselves fully and would exert their influence to improve the milk supply of Boston. The lady's enthusiasm for pure food did not survive this brief discourse on milk. "I don't drink milk," she said, "and I am not interested in babies. Tell me what you know about lemon extract."

Sensational misinformation about food adulteration so abounds in the public prints at this time that this inquirer would not have been surprised, perhaps, if she had been told that the most popular brand of lemon extract contains very variable amounts of prussic acid. All over the country statesmen, journalists, medical societies, and women's clubs are crying out against the slaughter of Americans by means of spices, catsups, jellies, and flavoring extracts. The people of Maryland, so far as I know, are not excited about their foods, but they have selected one very important article of diet for thorough and sober investigation. We are going to study milk for a period of ten weeks or longer.

My acquaintance with the causes of sickness and mortality in Maryland does not enable me to commence this course of lectures with a sensational statement.

My first proposition is that milk is nearly, if not quite, the most important single item in the dietary of mankind, and the second is that under certain conditions milk is a potent carrier of disease and death. Of the particulars comprised in these two general statements a few are known to me and another few are known to you. Collectively we perhaps know enough about milk to guess at some of the results which may follow this investigation. But I am convinced that it always saves time and often prevents disappointment to begin a work of this sort without any pledges or preconceptions as to the outcome. I begin this course with a confession of voluminous ignorance and robust curiosity, and I ask no better preparation than this for myself or for you. If the spirit of inquiry continues with us for eight or ten weeks, we shall know more about milk than we do now—enough, perhaps, to offer suggestions of substantial value to the whole people of Maryland.

We must be prepared for surprise at every step. If we begin by asking what is milk, our first surprise will be a disappointment, for a chemist has one answer, a physiologist another, a dairyman another, a hygienist another, and the compacted truth of all their answers would not satisfy an intelligent cow. If we ask the price of milk, one man says six cents, another eight cents, another ten cents, and so on up to thirty cents a quart, and at the top of the scale is the amateur dairyman who does not sell his milk at all, though you may drink some of it if you prefer milk to a very superior champagne which costs as much. To ask the price of milk and to expect a specific answer is about as rational as if one should call up an art dealer and

ask the price of paintings. We have discovered, however, that the term milk is generic, and that any specific price must relate to a kind of milk.

The kind of milk which especially interests us is market milk, the kind of milk which reaches the greatest number of consumers. The price of good market milk is one of the things which we ought to know. Here we shall encounter a rooted preconception which must be challenged at the outset. It will be agreed that it costs more to produce better milk than to produce merely good milk, and to most people it seems axiomatic that to improve the general milk supply is to advance the price of milk. But even when the factors which determine the cost of milk are known, it is probable that consumers and dairymen would agree as to their weight.

The price of milk includes everywhere the value of land, the cost of dairy cattle, the cost of housing and feeding, of milking, package, transportation, and distribution, every one of which items varies from time to time and from place to place. Besides the variable factors which the price of milk must cover everywhere, the price of milk is influenced by other conditions which are strictly local. Thus the price of milk is influenced in one place by the proximity of large creameries, at another place by condensed-milk factories, at another by the manufacture of oleomargarine. In other cities the price of milk varies from time to time, and the best farmers cannot make contracts to deliver milk at a fixed price for a twelvemonth. Many dairy farmers have no city contracts, but sell their milk at the station, or the station-agent may simply ship the milk on commission, not knowing at the time what the price will be or who the buyer.

**Elements
Entering Into
Price.**

It is worth while to know what determines the price of milk elsewhere in order to show whether the price of milk in Maryland is fair. If the Maryland dairyman says that cattle are dear, we may say that in Pennsylvania they are dearer, being tuberculin-tested. We can say, moreover, that dairy cattle are rela-

tively cheap in Maryland, because rejected cows, rigidly excluded from the dairy herds of Pennsylvania and Virginia on account of tuberculosis, are bought at low prices by Maryland dairy farmers. The dairy farmer may then reply that if such cattle are excluded from Maryland the price of dairy animals will advance. He follows up this argument by saying that he is forty miles from market and transportation is expensive. We shall say in reply that many New York dairymen are 400 miles from market, and have to pay for ice, as the Maryland dairyman ought to, but does not. The dairyman replies that ice is dearer here and the warm season is longer. To this the rejoinder is that farm buildings are more costly in the North, the cold season longer, and the pasture season shorter. This brings up the question of foods, and the dairyman says that feed is more costly hereabouts. Partly true, we admit, but the Maryland dairyman, near Baltimore at least, can buy an abundance of the cheapest sort of food—and a great milk producer, according to some accounts—namely, distillery swill. The good milkman declares that he will not sell swill milk of any sort, and he is sure that his customers do not want to buy it. He says that the market would be a good deal better if the winter price would hold the year round. In winter, when his cows are not in full milk, the price is good enough, but in summer he cannot find sale for all his milk, and is obliged to feed much of it to his farm animals. The consumer wants to know if the price of market milk must cover the unsold excess milk of summer. Of course it does, and the consumer suggests that the unsold milk must have some value as a food for farm animals, and in any event the consumer should not pay for it, because he receives no benefit out of this over-production. The consumer is benefited, however, for the Maryland farmer has a rule of thumb by which he makes sure that his summer milk will never fall below the butter-fat standards. This method is to make up the last three or four gallons in each can by adding top milk from the cans which

he expects to retain on the farm. The superior richness of the top milk thus added gives the consumers a very rich milk, having a fat content amounting often to 6 or 7 per cent., or even more. This interesting news does not strike all consumers alike favorably. There are unreasonable physicians who seem displeased by the information that the infants and invalids whose nutrition they regulate get a summer milk which is greatly enriched in its cream content and seriously confuses their diet prescriptions.

The argument that the summer milk is considerably more valuable does not appeal to the consumer quite as was expected. He wants to know why the dairymen around Philadelphia do not complain about the summer price, and the Maryland dairyman can answer that. He says that the Jersey shores are thronged with people, affording the Philadelphia market a fine outlet for surplus milk all summer long. But the fact is that many American farmers who formerly produced four gallons of milk in summer for every gallon which they could produce in winter now produce two gallons of summer milk to one of winter milk, and in the dairy countries of Europe the pressure of necessity has taught the farmer to keep the seasonal variations of his milk yield within much narrower limits. The pressure of necessity might teach the Maryland farmer to do the same thing, and he might under the same stimulus learn also how to support more animals on less land.

We want to know what profit the dairyman expects a cow to yield, and the usual answer is that the profit depends on the size of the herd. That, of course, is nonsense. The profit depends on the performance of the individual cows, and can be increased by eliminating the cows which do not yield a reasonable profit. If the Maryland dairyman does not keep an account with every animal, it is because his ambition is low enough or the price of milk high enough to compensate for the want of that much sagacity. Clever farmers credit to each cow every ounce of her milk and every penny worth that she adds in any way to the

revenues of the farm. The debit side of the account includes every penny of expense. If the profits can be increased by accurate accounting when the price of milk is high, surely losses can be prevented by accurate accounting when the price is low.

The price of milk, so far as we have analyzed it, includes a number of elements over which, as we believe, the farmer does not exercise the intelligent control which would be necessary if his business were more sensitive to healthy competition. The consumer recognizes that several factors enter into the price of milk, but does not consent to the farmer's statements concerning their weight. When we look a little further into the elements of cost we find that each item is capable of subdivision. In discussing food materials, for instance, one is not convinced that the available resources are thoughtfully used in feeding dairy cattle, though steadily increasing cost of the staple foods would seem to be a sufficient stimulus to the study of dairy rations, and one must admit that if the price of milk was fair with the cost food at the relatively low figures of a few years ago, the price of milk must be ruinously low at present. We may assume, unless otherwise informed, that in housing his cattle the average dairyman is governed by the standards fixed by the laws of Maryland. These prescribe a minimum allowance of light and air space and a certain decency about the removal of refuse. If we suggest that hay should not be kept in the loft above the dairy cattle, that non-absorbent floors are desirable, that cows should not be milked in their stalls, but preferably in the open air or in a room built for that purpose; that open cans should not be brought into the barn, that milk should not be cooled in the barn or in a room where feed is kept, these suggestions, we must admit, involve considerable expense to the farmer and justify an increased price, if the price of milk under existing conditions is no more than fair.

Under the item of labor we shall perhaps find that grooming of the cows is not included, nor a change of clothing for the milkers, nor any considerable

personal ablution, or washing of cans or of cows, and if we like a pretty thorough sort of cleanness in these operations we must agree that the extra expense is worth a little more than the ruling price of milk, provided that price is fair.

The Dairyman's Argument.

If we press for all the reforms which seem desirable without admitting that a substantial advance in price is likely to follow, the dairyman has an argument that may turn the tables on us. He may say:

Why should a farmer do these things? The middleman, the dealer, can befoul milk as thoroughly as anyone else. His way of examining the milk is to taste it. He dips into a can with a cup or a dipper and takes a little of the milk into his mouth. He does not swallow any milk, but spits it out, and goes from can to can with the same cup, repeating his performance. Some of them do not need a cup or a dipper. Two or three fingers dipped into a can will bring out enough milk to settle a dealer's doubts about the quality of the milk, or, if a larger sample is required, it can be taken out in the hollow of one hand. The hand is a leaky vessel, and one prefers that it should leak anywhere rather than over one's clothing. It might interest you also to see the bottles washed, filled and capped. This operation can be seen without visiting a city dealer's establishment. People in the alleys can sometimes see the bottles filled by the wagon driver from a large can in the wagon, and some say that the empty bottles recovered from one back fence are refilled and deposited on the fence next door. Why should the dealer be overparticular about his bottles? One milkman is as good as another to the average consumer. The kitchen people choose your milkman. He leaves milk on the fence in the morning before you are up, and again in the afternoon, and there it sits till someone thinks of it. The garbage man comes along and makes one kind of a mess and the ashman makes another. The sun shines and rain rains on good milk as well as evil. The servant who goes out with garbage or ashes brings in the milk. She pushes the cap into the bottle with a fork or a skewer, and fishes it out with her fingers or else leaves it in the milk. She pours out what she needs and puts the open jar with its exposed contents into the refrigerator with bananas, soup herbs, and other alimentary odds and ends. You see the bill when it is presented, and you don't want the price to be over eight cents a quart. You want the milk to remain sweet for 12 or 18 hours, in spite of your way of handling it, and the milkman will arrange that for you, if the farmer has not done so, by adding a little of a liquid refrigerant which is

at present very popular among undertakers. You see the milk on the table, and if it is not yellow you complain to the cook. The cook tells the milkman, and he stains your milk just the shade of yellow that you require. You never see the bottles. The sediment at the bottom might interest you, and you might like to know whether it consists of city dirt or farm dirt, though there is no important difference, and the chances are that both sorts of dirt are present. The empty bottles go back to the milkman with an odor of coal oil or of vinegar or with a suspicion of syrup, and the milk cans sometimes bring back to the farm a peck or more of coal ashes and potato peel.

If the farmer in this breezy summary has honestly characterized the milk business, one must believe that market milk may be produced in accordance with the laws of Maryland as to the housing of cattle, may conform to the chemical standards for normal milk, may be free from every sort of wilful or fraudulent adulteration, and yet be such a substance as no housekeeper would buy nor any honest man offer for sale, except that the nasty business has been legitimized by traditional indifference and ignorance on the part of both buyers and sellers. It seems reasonably clear that market milk ought to be clean. If so, it must be drawn from clean animals by clean hands into clean vessels, it must be put into clean containers, transported and distributed by clean methods, and must be kept clean from the moment of delivery until it is taken as food. Clean people, and clean ones only, must handle this delicate liquid at every step from the farm to the table.

The cost of cleanness is a part of the price of milk, and we want to know the price of clean milk. The oldest test of cleanness, and one of the best, is the age at which milk sours. The very dirtiest milk will not sour at all if a few drops of formaline are added to each quart, but none of us want embalmed milk even though it be clean. The dirtiest milk will keep sweet for several days if it be thoroughly pasteurized, but very few of us want cooked milk even though it be clean. The price of clean raw milk appears to be our specific inquiry. Several American dairies have produced raw milk clean enough to stand a voyage across the ocean and to be served as sweet milk

to consumers on the other side. Many people in the United States are willing to pay from twenty to thirty cents a quart for such milk. At the price this is hardly market milk, and we must amend our question again. What is the price of raw milk clean enough to keep sweet in the consumers' pantry two days? That is what the Maryland farmer must answer. All I know about it at present is that in one place it can be bought for twenty cents, in another for fifteen cents, in another place for seven and one-half cents, and in still another, as I am informed, for six and two-thirds cents per quart. I believe, moreover, that in all these places a clean raw milk is sold only to those who have been educated up to the point of demanding such milk, and that in proportion as that particular kind of education spreads among the people the price of clean market milk will more and more approach the price of dirty milk.

**Of General
Purposes.**

The purpose of this investigation is, then, to find out whether it is possible to bring within the reach of everybody in Maryland the kind of milk that a few of us are clever enough or rich enough to buy at present. We can accomplish this purpose by distributing either money or knowledge. A few handfuls of coin would not carry us very far, nor a few headfuls of information. Our results will be proportionate to our resources of either kind, but we must work with information, and in that kind we can make our capital practically unlimited.

I have not disguised the fact that your health officials do not know enough to suggest wise laws for the sanitary control of market milk; I have indicated that milk producers and milk dealers do not know enough to meet a rapidly-growing demand for much better market milk, and I have offered the unflattering suggestion that consumers do not know enough to buy milk intelligently. As to the amount of knowledge available to milkmen and consumers in their relations to this problem, my estimate is subject to correction. But when I say that the State Board of Health expects out of this investigation to build up its own

knowledge into something adequate to the needs of the public, that is not a matter of opinion, but of fact. If anyone thinks that we should make this investigation on our own account and without inviting the general public to participate in any other way than as beneficiaries, I have only to say that public business is public, and that the most efficient public servants are those whose duties lie in fields familiar to their masters—the people. The weight of enlightened public opinion determines the quality of every public service, and the results are never satisfactory except when efficiency in public office is supplemented by intelligent private practice. The business of public hygiene in this country is so new that no great mass of enlightened public opinion is brought to bear on its progress. Its chief men are only amateurs, coming into leadership *per saltum*, and not *per gradum*, restrained by no traditions, governed by few precedents, uncertain of their technique, and needing, more than most public servants do, the help of their masters.

I have convinced you, I hope, that we are not prepared to answer at this moment the simplest of the questions confronting us, namely, what is the price of milk? Nor can we answer better any of the other questions which must be asked in the course of our investigation. Every available source of useful information must be made tributary to our inquiry or we may make only a trail where we intend to build a road.

In 1902 the Tuberculosis Commission of Maryland, an official body made up of men who had no previous experience in dealing with problems of public hygiene, proposed to study tuberculosis in just this fashion. The people were invited to join them, and they did so, some hundreds. Personally, I have never seen a spectacle so remarkable nor any so inspiring. I think the results of that experiment were not foreseen by anyone, though 200 persons at least believed that the rewards would be ample. No one supposed that our frugal spread would prove enticing. But the people were hungry, and thousands were fed. I think the miracle of the loaves and fishes was

repeated here in 1904. That show is two years past. Its outward and visible signs disappeared very quickly, but the people are still nourished by the fragments that remained, so that there is hardly a village in this Commonwealth which has not laid hold on the faith that tuberculosis can be and will at least be mastered.

Now the subtle power that spread this saving faith, and that not on wings of fear, but on feet of knowledge, resided in a company of about 200 persons who first received the word with gladness and made it, as I have said, virulent, so that it spread like a kind pestilence at every contact.

Municipal Milk Work in Rochester

George W. Goler, M.D.

Health Officer of Rochester, New York

In the discussion relating to pure foods and food adulterations little or nothing is heard of milk and its dangers. Every baby must have milk, that opaque, whitish, more or less creamy fluid, with an odor frequently suggestive of the barnyard, and often more valuable as a food for calves or pigs or for fertilizing material than as a ration for babies.

This great food supply comes to all the cities and towns and hamlets of our great country from thousands and thousands of farms, and to the average householder has the following recommendations: It is to be found in most places in large quantities; it is cheap, sold at a price that has become fixed; it is white, or nearly so, and it has a reputation for its nourishing qualities. It is usually sold by a man whose every movement exhales an odor of cow stables, whose utensils would for cleanliness hardly find a place in a fairly well-ordered kitchen; yet this man brings in his wagon and in his utensils the food we give to our babies, to our sick, and of which we ourselves to some extent, partake. Were the milkman who serves milk to you clean, were his utensils clean, and he should dare to charge even as much as one additional cent per quart for his product, the housekeeper would get another milkman. So he remains dirty because he cannot afford to be clean. It costs money to adopt cleanly methods. This man may have cleanly instincts, but his customers compel him to remain dirty. Have you ever observed the milkman, your milkman, at work, seen him wash his cans, measures, bottles, etc.? The average man does it about in this way. He gets a washtub of water.

It cannot be very hot, because hot water would coagulate the old milk caked on the can or bottle. In this water he swirls the bottles, cans and things around, rinses them in another tub of more or less hot water, and then stands them up to drain in the dairy-house. Frequently this dairy-house is near the barn, and there the things stand until they are filled with milk, when they are more or less tightly closed and more or less perfectly cooled. Where does the man get the milk he puts in his cans or bottles? Do you know? Does *he* know? In a great many instances, while the milkman knows the place from which his milk came, he has never seen the barns or stables, knows nothing of their cleanliness or, save in a business way, the man from whom he purchases his milk. Frequently the man buys milk from a farmer whose premises he has never seen. Occasionally it comes from his own little place in the suburbs. In either case the milk most frequently comes from a close, cobwebby, dusty, undrained barn, containing fly-tormented cows in summer or darkly-housed filthy cows in winter.

Your milkman uses a strainer. Why? He uses a strainer to strain out the large particles of filth. The smaller particles and the soluble filth, of course, find their way through the strainer into the milk that we feed children. Where does the man store his milk between the time the cows are milked and the product is delivered to his customers? Does he keep it in the barn behind the cows? In winter he frequently keeps his product in the pantry off the kitchen. Should he have diphtheria or scarlet fever in his family,

what is to prevent these diseases being carried to the babies in the city, not to mention the intestinal diseases that may be caused by the filth and bacteria usually contained in the milk? In summer he may keep the milk in the springhouse, and if typhoid excrement obtains access the city customers not infrequently suffer.

All this, and more, occurs day after day and year after year in thousands upon thousands of instances, for you compel milkmen to be dirty, because you are not willing to pay a living price for milk. You are willing to jeopardize the baby's health rather than pay a living price for milk, and thus enable the milkman to be clean. Until the people are willing to pay a better price for milk they cannot expect to obtain milk fit to feed little children. According to the statistics of men in the agricultural experiment stations, many farmers are keeping milch cows at a loss. Until you are willing to pay for clean milk, until you are willing to pay for having milk inspected as it should be inspected, you will get a product having a high fertilizer and a low hygienic value, and you and your children will suffer disease and death as a consequence.

The Rochester Experience. In Rochester we have tried to insure that all our citizens shall have an approximately clean milk supply. It is my purpose to tell you why and how we have accomplished this work. We have a population of 185,000 people. We receive 75,000 quarts of milk daily from 700 farms lying within a radius of 60 miles in three directions. This milk is distributed by 225 retail dealers licensed at \$2 each. In our city there are approximately 5,000 births per annum, not all of which are reported. If 4,000 of these babies live, we then have at all times between 15,000 and 20,000 babies under five years of age dependent for the most part upon milk as food. Take these figures as a basis for your city. Think upon the thousands upon thousands of lives dependent upon milk as food. How much are you willing to pay for this food? How much does your city pay for milk inspection? Are you willing to find out what your city pays, what your state pays, for inspect-

ing milk, and if you find they do not pay enough, are you willing to do your duty as citizens by insisting that sufficient money be set aside for the inspection of farms and dairies from which this food supply comes and for the maintenance of a sufficient chemical and biological staff to examine this food supply? Will you insist upon the work being well done? After an examination of municipal milk work similar to that conducted by us during the summer months I think you ought to be willing to establish milk stations at least during the summer either at the cost of private philanthropy or at the expense of the municipality. Our municipal milk stations, four in number, with a portable laboratory on a farm, are established for two months each year in order that we may safeguard the lives of more than 15,000 children under five years of age. We began our work in a rough way nearly ten years ago. What we have been able to accomplish we can only show by the figures demonstrating the great decrease in the number of deaths from all causes, both during the summer months and for the whole period. We cannot, of course, show the effect on the health of the children whose lives have been saved through this work. In attempting to show what we have done we do not deal with estimated populations, percentages of population, or causes of death from intestinal diseases alone. We take all of the deaths from all causes that occur under five years of age, for we assume that every death in a child under five years of age was, in part at least, due to the dirty character of its food.

Total deaths under five years of age, 1888-1896	6,629
Total deaths under five years of age, 1897-1905	4,403
Total deaths under five years, July and August, first period, nine years, without municipal milk stations...	2,005
Total deaths under five years, July and August, second period, nine years, with municipal milk stations	1,000

The beginnings of the milk stations in 1897 were on a very primitive scale. Only \$300 were required to begin this work the first season. The services of two nurses were donated by two of the

hospitals—one nurse for two months and one nurse for one month. A store was rented in the most populous part of the city, fitted with the necessary running water, gas stoves, counters and shelving. To this store milk was brought, pasteurized by the nurse, cooled and sold at cost, and little pamphlets entitled *How to Take Care of Babies*, and printed in four languages, were given to mothers who came to the stations for milk.

In 1900, when we paid particular attention to the cows and sterilized all of the utensils, we ceased pasteurizing, established a clean-milk plant upon a farm, extended our inspection work so that a large number of samples were collected to determine their nutritive value, began the systematic collection of samples to determine the bacterial content in milk, began the agitation for the establishment of a count not greater than 100,000 bacteria per cubic centimeter as a standard for city milk, and with the aid of the Rochester Academy of Medicine established a milk commission for certified milk.

**The General
Scheme
of Control.**

Our general milk work may then be divided into (a) obtaining and examining 4,000 to 5,000 samples per annum for nutritive value; (b) in 1905 obtaining and counting approximately 1,000 samples of milk for bacterial content; (c) inspection of dairies and stables for cleanliness; (d) registering against the name of each milkman the number of families with infectious diseases to whom he supplied milk, so that the danger of the milkman's carrying scarlet fever, diphtheria, or typhoid fever to his customers may be minimized, through ordinance and license endeavoring to educate the milkman, and, when this fails, compelling the better conduct of milk production and distribution, and by organizing a milk commission for certifying milk.

In the beginning of this general milk work there were found very many dirty cows and many dirty stables both in the city and in the country. To the average milkman straining the larger particles of dirt out of the milk, whirling it out by a centrifugal machine and then pasteurizing

it, soluble dirt, micro-organisms and all, appears necessary. These things, while they make the milk keep longer, of course make it more difficult for babies to digest, but nevertheless a silver-plated centrifugal machine and a pasteurizing or sterilizing apparatus with bright metal attachments appeals more strongly to the milkman as a way to escape having sour milk than more simple and more cleanly methods in dealing with his barn, his cows, and his utensils.

The ordinary milkmen do not realize that pasteurized milk, while having a low bacterial count, generally owes its low bacterial count to the deaths of countless millions of the more harmless micro-organisms, while leaving more dangerous organisms to multiply. The matter of cleanliness such as is used in vaccine stations, the use of aseptic methods such as protect in vaccine laboratories, and the immediate cooling of his product to below 50° F. appeal to him less strongly than copper and nickel apparatus and the exhibition of a ball of dung and hair from the milk as an argument in favor of the use of the centrifugal machine through which dirty milk passes to be sterilized.

These notions on the part of the milkmen are difficult to combat, but we have sought, first, long and patiently to teach, and, failing in this, to compel, through arrests, fines, and the revocation of licenses, more cleanly conduct of the establishments supplying our city with milk.

Our milk work is carried on during July and August in a portable laboratory, set up each year on a farm selected for the purpose. We contract with the farmer for milk at four and one-half to five cents per quart. The plant consists of a portable house, from which a long platform extends. The house is used as a preparing and bottling room. Outside the house, under a tent fly, a sink and running water are supplied. Here the bottles are washed. Next, beyond the bottle-washing plant, is a sterilizing tent. Here sterilizers are mounted upon oil stoves, each sterilizer holding two gross of nursing bottles. Beyond the sterilizing-room is the tent where the nurse

sleeps. The nurse boards with the farmer, or may, if she wishes, provide her own board.

Milk is received at the portable laboratory each morning, diluted in four dilutions, bottled, iced, and shipped to the four stations, where the milk is sold as has been described.

It is our belief that most babies become sick because they are infected by the bacteria and poisons of stable manure contained in dirty milk, and that to keep children well it is necessary to protect them from the dirt in milk just as much as we would protect them from diphtheria or scarlet-fever infection. Aside from the work done to insure that milk shall have a nutritive value, as provided by statute; that it shall have a low bacterial content, as indicating a minimum amount of stable and barnyard contamination; that infectious disease may not be brought to the consumer through sickness either on the premises of the wholesaler or retailer, our municipal milk stations have been established as demonstration plants from which the public may learn through the press, through our pamphlets, and from our nurses the value of clean milk to the child. Further than this, with the aid of the Rochester Academy of Medicine, we have certified to the milk of those dealers who give us assurance that for a living price, a few cents additional charge, they will furnish clean milk for those willing to pay for it.

We have done these things at a cost so low that it is hardly worth mentioning. Aside from the expense of the work of the Health Bureau, which any city may well afford; aside from the expense of the milk commission for certifying it, borne by the Rochester Academy of Medicine, the cost of this work for our city of 185,000 has averaged about \$1,000 a year.

There is, however, more work that may be done. In a great city, with its tens of thousands of children, the problem of clean milk is much larger than it is with us. In such a city thousands of children are born every year; thousands of these

children die every year. You have with you every year thousands of children under five years of age dependent for their very lives upon milk, that most perishable of foods. This food comes to your city, as it comes to other cities, from thousands of farms within a radius of hundreds of miles, and is handled by hundreds of men. Are you willing to do what you can to protect the babies of your city? These babies are the future citizens of your state. Will you help to stop all the suffering that annually comes to these thousands of children? Will you help to prevent the despair of the father, the anguish of the mother? Your state and city governments are doing much to help in this work, but state and municipal officers need the help of every citizen. Portable laboratories and milk stations are needed by all of the people, the rich as well as the poor, especially in summer. Certified-milk plants are needed, and here is work for the physician. There is a great opportunity for the philanthropist to join hands with the citizen and the physician in this work. The philanthropist may, without danger of doing harm with his money, establish for a limited time, until their value has been proven, a number of field milk inspectors. These inspectors, most of whom should be women, preferably, trained nurses, should inspect and report to a board having charge of the work the condition of the farms and dairies supplying milk to the city, the board or committee, in turn, forwarding these reports to the health authorities. These inspectors should be paid for by private philanthropy, but should receive such appointment from the state as would enable them to gain access to the premises they desire to investigate. The duties of these inspectors should be both educational and advisory for the milk farms, the dairyman, and the consumer. Such inspection would direct the attention of both the consumer and the producer to the drainage, ventilation and other sanitary needs of the farm and dairy, and they would serve to awaken the public to the necessity for clean milk for babies.

**More Work
to Be Done.**

The Production of Clean Milk from a Practical Standpoint

Samuel C. Prescott

Boston Bio-Chemical Laboratory, Boston, Mass.

The water for a city is, in general, derived from a single large source, or few sources, in areas which may be so safeguarded as to prevent pollution with pathogenic or intestinal bacteria, and its transportation to the consumer is not attended by serious danger of infection. Milk, on the other hand, is obtained from a large number of small sources—the individual farms; it is constantly subject to contamination because of the methods of handling from the time it is drawn from the cow until it reaches the consumer.

As milk is almost universally used as an article of food, especially for infants and young children, as well for others of weakened or impaired vital resistance, it is of the utmost importance that it should be wholesome, sweet, and clean. No one questions the nutritive value of good milk, but it is becoming more and more widely believed that much of the sickness and many of the deaths of young children are due to impure and dirty milk, that is, milk which contains harmful bacteria and other substances naturally foreign to milk as it is secreted by the healthy cow. It should always be recognized that milk is a substance of great food value for microbic life, and especially for those organisms which can cause lactic fermentation and putrefactive changes. As these bacteria readily find their way into milk unless great care is taken to prevent them, the possibility of an enormous increase in numbers and a corresponding increase in the amount of decomposition products is a matter of great importance. Thus, paradoxically, the fact that milk is a rich food becomes a source of weakness when we consider it from the standpoint of industrial or economic bacteriology.

Normal Milk the Aim.

The real milk problem which we have to consider is, I believe, not chiefly how a sufficient quantity of milk with a definite percentage of fats and solids may be obtained, but how the inhabitants of the cities shall be

provided with milk which is sweet, clean, free from questionable substances, such as preservatives, and low in bacteria. In other words, how may we supply normal milk?

Two lines naturally present themselves—first, the passing of laws or ordinances requiring much stricter observance of precautions in the production and handling of milk, or second, the treatment of milk in some way so as to destroy the bacteria. By this method the milk might be satisfactory from the standpoint of numbers of bacteria, but not necessarily clean.

In my opinion, it is by working along the first of the two lines suggested that the practical solution of the milk problem will be reached. Whether federal, state or municipal control will be best in the end cannot now be told, but I am inclined to believe that close inspection can be as well administered by the local authority as by the representative of the federal government. In any case I believe official supervision should be accompanied or preceded by a campaign of education such as is now being conducted in Baltimore.

The production of clean milk is more than a demonstrable possibility; it is thoroughly practicable but requires strict and intelligent attention to details. There are scattered through the country numerous dairies, milk from which is shown by examination to contain at most but a few hundred bacteria per cubic centimeter, and to be free from dirt, cow manure, and other foreign matters. I believe the value of these "sanitary" dairies has been twofold. They have provided a pure and wholesome, though high-priced, milk, and each has been a sort of missionary station from which has been preached the gospel of cleanliness in a most effective way.

Pasteurized Milk.

The second method of securing milk low in bacteria is by the process of pasteurization. This has sometimes been suggested as a solution of the

milk problem and it seems to be the easiest available present means of reducing bacteria to the number normal to pure milk. Probably about one-fifth of the milk sold in Boston has been treated in this way.

But, while the process of pasteurization may be very successfully carried out from the bacteriological point of view,¹ it should be regarded as a means to an end, and not as an end in itself. From the sanitary and hygienic standpoint it goes without question that the major portion of pasteurized milk now sold is far better than ordinary raw milk, yet the fact should not be lost sight of that a pure, clean supply of natural milk is most to be desired, as it is of greater food value than the pasteurized product and is free from the objections which may be charged against the latter.

**An Experience
With
Market Milk.**

It must be accepted I think, that by far the major portion of the milk consumed in a large city for a long time to come will be produced upon the ordinary farm, handled by ordinary men, and shipped by the ordinary means of transportation. We must not, then, be too sweeping or impatient in our demands for reforms nor make ordinances or laws which cannot be obeyed.

In my opinion the establishment of a perfectly satisfactory milk supply must be a process of evolution and education, and perhaps a slow one at that, as I have already hinted, but I believe that a great step forward is not impossible at once. It has been my good fortune to act for several months as bacteriolo-

gist and sanitary inspector for a firm selling milk in the city of Boston. The business is not a large one as compared with the leading agencies of supply, but handles the milk obtained from about 185 farms situated from 25 to 40 miles from Boston.

Before I assumed any supervision some attempt had been made by the firm to instill ideas of cleanliness and to emphasize the necessity for cooling milk. This was undoubtedly of great assistance in my work. Furthermore, the business policy of the firm had been a just one, and superior quality had been rewarded by increased selling price. This apparently liberal policy, really only honesty, was appreciated by the farmers, and they were probably the more willing to accept further suggestions.

The city of Boston has as yet no milk commission for certification, etc., but the Board of Health has enacted an ordinance forbidding the sale by the dealers of milk containing in excess of 500,000 bacteria per cubic centimeter or at a temperature above 50° F. under penalty of fine. A fairly rigid inspection is enforced, and offenders are warned, or if this is ineffective, fined. It is obviously to the detriment of a milk dealer to be thus haled into court, and most of them, therefore, prefer to engage some bacteriologist or inspector to keep a watch on the milk rather than take the chance of a fine. In my own case I believe I was engaged not merely to get the supply into condition just to clear the law, but to see if a really excellent milk could not be obtained.

I was given free rein to conduct my campaign as seemed best to me. I decided on a system of inspection for bacteria and leucocytes, as conducted also by the city Board of Health, and also upon a personal inspection of the premises and farms as perhaps the best means of approaching the farmers and getting into touch with them. Having been country-bred, and therefore knowing the characteristics of the New England farmer, I undertook to visit personally every farm sending milk, to talk with the farmer and ex-

¹ It is the writer's belief that all pasteurized milk which is sold should be distinctly designated. The ease with which the number of bacteria may be brought within the legal limit renders it possible for unscrupulous dealers to utilize filthy, half-decomposed milk high in bacteria, and by this simple process destroy the bacteria so that the milk may be sold as clean milk, conforming with the legal requirements. To what extent harmful products (toxins) have been developed in the milk previous to its pasteurization and left unchanged by this process is unknown, but it might be that such poisonous bodies could be present in considerable amount. It seems to the writer that not only should pasteurized milk be so labelled, but that there should be a law limiting the age, acidity, and number of bacteria in milk which is to be pasteurized and subsequently exposed for sale. It must be admitted that such a law would be easily evaded unless rigidly enforced.

plain the reasons for our inspections, and to suggest whatever means of improvement in his methods and appliances seemed to me to be sensible and practicable.

This program was carried out, all the farms being visited during the hot weather, when the trouble with cooling, etc., would be at its maximum. While these farms are scattered over an extended area, the milk is brought every morning, and, in the case of the nearer farms, every evening also, to two receiving stations where it is mixed and bottled and put on ice ready for shipment.

The farmers themselves may bring the milk, each from his own farm, but in the case of the more distant dairies the milk is generally transported by some one of the producers, who carries all the milk from his neighborhood. Thus a number of milk routes are established, and by knowing what time any carrier is due to arrive at the receiving station it is possible to get samples from any farm whenever desired. The farms are all numbered, and each can of milk has attached to it a label bearing its proper number. As the wagons arrive at the receiving station the samples for bacteriological examination are taken by a trained assistant, who sees that the milk in the can is properly mixed before the sample is taken. Each farm is examined in this way at least once a month, sometimes twice, or three or four times if it is necessary. As no regular order of collection is maintained, there is no chance for a farmer to be especially careful on the day his milk is sampled, for his may be selected for examination any day or on successive days. After the samples are collected they are at once taken to the laboratory and plated, and examined microscopically for leucocytes and streptococci. The examination has a double effect—we are able to determine which farms are sending in milk which by itself would be unsalable owing to the ordinance limiting numbers to 500,000, and which are entirely satisfactory, regardless of the ordinance. Personally, I believe the Boston system a wise

one, and that it is well to have a wide margin at first, because it is a condition which the farmer can reach. This limit can probably be lowered at a later time with good effect.

If as a result of our inspection we find that a farm is exceeding the limits allowed by the ordinance, a card is sent directly from my laboratory to the farmer, i. e., not through the office of the company at all, telling him that on a certain date his milk contained a given number of bacteria, and suggesting that greater care and cleanliness will probably remove the difficulty. If his record has been a good one hitherto, a statement is written in to that effect, together with the statement that the lapse is probably accidental. If, on the other hand, the record of the farm has not been satisfactory, the full force of the warning is expressed, viz.: that unless improvement takes place at once the company will be forced to exclude his milk.

It is interesting to note that after a warning card is received, milk from that particular farm is generally of excellent quality. Although the ordinance does not prescribe a fine for sale of milk containing high leucocytes such milk is generally excluded by the Board of Health. Examination for pus, as the leucocytes are generally called, leads not to a warning, but to an inspection of the farm and the examination of each cow individually.

In case, then, the milk from a certain farm is high in leucocytes, instead of excluding all milk, an examination is made, and milk from all cows not affected is allowed to be sent as usual. Affected cows are held in quarantine, so to speak, until a further examination shows the milk to be normal again. If this does not occur in the course of a few days, a veterinarian is called in. We consider that there is danger when we find both leucocytes and streptococci together (leucocytes + streptococci = danger), while the evidence is far less conclusive in case of leucocytes alone, especially as these are likely to occur with a very small number of bacteria.

The results of our examinations as

seen from the accompanying table are to me interesting and striking. These show that in less than nine months the largest percentage of samples grouped arbitrarily by numbers has changed from the one above the legal limit to the lowest of all. Of course, this was due to some extent to the cold weather.

BACTERIOLOGICAL INSPECTION OF MILK

Percentages of Total Samples Examined, Graded According to Number of Bacteria per Cubic Centimeter, June, 1905, March, 1906.

Bact. per c. c.	June.	Mar.
10,000 or below.....	2	33.8
10,000 to 50,000.....	17.4	39.9
50,000 to 100,000.....	12.5	7.5
100,000 to 250,000.....	25.7	8.6
250,000 to 500,000.....	11.8	1.9
500,000 or above.....	30.5	8.3
Total samples examined 2148.		

Another thing that we have done is to prepare a simple statement, with some suggestions as to care and handling, and the description of some experiments which have been carried out, to show how many very simple things may add greatly to the bacterial contamination of milk; for example, such things as the introduction of hairs, bits of hay and particles of dirt and manure, the effect of washing and not washing utensils, and the effect of time and temperature on the development of bacteria.

Some Practical Conclusions.

From the observations that I have been able to make as a result of this and earlier practical work on this subject I am led to believe that the farmer's side of the case has not always been fairly considered. That clean milk may be produced with moderate-priced or even ordinary barns I am convinced as a result of my inspection work. One should not expect, however, to get as fine results under these conditions as with more expensive equipment. At the present time, with fierce competition and the low price of milk, the farmer is perhaps doing all he can afford. I confidently believe that if the farmers were to receive five or six cents per quart, and were told how to produce clean milk, many of

them would do it. This would mean, of course, that milk should cost the consumer ten cents, which is a reasonable figure as compared with the cost of other foods. As a matter of fact, the cost of feeding the cows has actually doubled in a few years, yet the farmer is expected to take the same price for his milk. Until some readjustment of costs takes place I think that we can rightfully expect but little more in the way of care from the farmer. The careful farmer who knows the cost of his milk and charges for it accordingly is likely to find that his good milk is soon crowded out of the market and replaced by that of a poorer quality. The remedy lies largely with the consumers. It seems to me that a satisfactory clean-milk supply is possible and practicable if the following suggestions can be put in force:

1. An intelligent, sympathetic, but rigid inspection or supervision of the farms, excluding milk from all those sources where the farmer is not inclined to do what he can to fulfill cleanly conditions.
2. Dissemination of information to the farmer of needful points as to the care and handling of the milk at the farm, and, in fact, to all those who have to do with the handling of the milk before it reaches the consumer.
3. Proper regulations and inspection of the handling, transportation, etc., with perhaps an ordinance, as in force in Boston, setting up a bacteriological standard for salable milk.
4. A higher selling price to the farmers in return for the extra care in the production of clean milk.

Of course, the importance of cleanliness must be impressed on all from the producer to the consumer, as, after all, the whole question comes down practically to a question of cleanliness in handling. If proper care is taken at the barn and clean cows, clean men and clean utensils are insisted upon, clean milk will result. From this point on the milk must be kept cold as well as free from contamination. But these precautions though simple are absolutely necessary for the production of high grade milk.

The Claims of the Baby in the Discussion of the Milk Question¹

J. H. M. Knox, M.D.

Physician in charge the Thomas Wilson Sanitarium for Children, Baltimore

For the tiny heirs of comfort and luxury special scales are constructed that the proper bi-weekly gain in avoirdupois may be accurately ascertained; special fabrics of wondrous softness are on the market, that there may be warmth in the clothing but no chafing of the baby's delicate epidermis; skilled attendants keep the little tyrant under a constantly watchful eye, quick to discern and report the slightest deviation from normal, and, most important, for the number of these babies who must be bottle fed, a milk of the first quality is procured, which has been produced by carefully selected cows, under conditions bordering upon surgical asepsis, and modified in sterile vessels with boiled water under the direction of an experienced physician.

Unfortunately, however, from the standpoint of the city's statistics, the children above described form a very small group of the total infant population. The babies who have ideal or even satisfactory surroundings are far outnumbered by those brought up in homes unsanitary for adults and still more destructive to the infant's less resistant organism. In the close, moist atmosphere, in the only heated room which is at once a kitchen, a store room, a laundry and a dining room, the baby often has its whole being; the only outside air it is permitted to breathe comes in the form of a draft from a defective window or an opened door.

It goes without saying that the mother in a household of this kind can take but inadequate care of the youngest member of her family. Besides being the family cook, laundress and housemaid, she may in addition bring in outside washes or sewing, or go out herself several hours each day for other service. It is, of course, from centers such as these, which are common, especially among our foreign and negro population, that the

community is continually threatened with the spread of various communicable diseases, it is in similar homes that the largest death rate among infants and children occurs. The work of reaching the baby in these homes with a suitable milk implies, as is evident, much more than the improvement of the supply at the farm and dairy.

Let us now consider briefly but fairly the actual state of affairs in Baltimore in respect to the baby. What are the chances for its life in this civilized community. The total number of deaths per annum in this city is somewhat over 10,000, or about nineteen in every 1,000 of the population. Of the 10,000 more than 3,000, or one-third occur in children under five years of age: more than 2,000, or one-fifth of the total number occur in infants under one year of age. An analysis of these deaths reveals the fact that fully 1,000 deaths or *one-third of the total child mortality* is due primarily to faulty nutrition, and with a much larger number the lack of food has an indirect bearing. Other factors, of course, are also operative, increasing the difficulty of reaching a final solution. Surely this would be a lethargic community if it could complacently hear that there took place each year within its borders 1,000 cases of direct and fatal poisoning and yet the case of the infant against the public shorn of all blandishments can be truthfully stated almost thus bodily.²

This slaughter of the innocents can be attributed to three chief factors:

1. Inherited constitutional weakness;
2. Unhygienic surroundings, including lack of care;
3. Improper nourishment.

²In the number of cases now being considered deaths from the various infectious diseases, from tuberculosis and pneumonia are not included, we are confining our attention to two groups of maladies common in infancy and frequently occurring together, namely, disorders of the alimentary tract, and malnutrition or the wasting diseases. From these two general causes occur in our fair city 1000 deaths among children each year.

¹The full text of this paper is published in the *Alumnae Magazine* of John Hopkins' nurses.

Unquestionably many children suffer for the sins of their parents and begin the struggle for existence heavily handicapped with inherited disease or with lowered powers of resistance. The children of confirmed alcoholics are notoriously feeble. The offspring of underfed mothers are smaller than the average. Again, such unhealthful surroundings as have been referred to in the crowded one or two-roomed home certainly exert a deleterious influence upon the life of a baby.

While the two factors first mentioned are potent in producing this unnecessarily large number of deaths among children, undoubtedly there is more destruction of life among infants directly traceable to improper nourishment than to any other one cause.

It has been known for many years, for example, that but a small percentage, 3-5%, of the infants dying of intestinal diseases so prevalent during the summer months are exclusively breast-fed, or to put it differently, more than nine-tenths of all deaths from these disorders occur in artificially fed babies; that is to say, that notwithstanding the weakened constitution with which many of these children are born into the world, notwithstanding the squalid environment amid which they must live their lives, that when their nourishment is suited to their needs, they are, for the most part, able to resist these yearly devastating epidemics. A similar condition of affairs is true of that other large group of maladies contributory to the unnecessarily high death rate, namely, mal-nutrition, or the wasting diseases, in which the child, without apparent cause, gradually loses weight and strength and finally succumbs it may be to some inter-current affliction.

Such cases are of the utmost rarity among breast-fed infants, even in the poorest homes. We return, then, with renewed interest to a consideration of the problem of securing for these defenseless citizens a proper nourishment such as will insure them life and liberty and the future pursuit of happiness.

At the outset it must be emphasized with all the stress possible that it is fu-

tile to hope that we shall ever be able to obtain for infants a form of nourishment at all equal to mother's milk, and it is the duty of every physician and nurse, of every philanthropist having to do with this problem of saving infant lives, to recognize this fact and to insist upon this natural and easiest method of rearing the baby whenever it is possible; and to bear in mind also the fact that where the mother cannot supply sufficient milk for the sole sustenance of the baby she should be advised to furnish what she can, and warned that she cannot forego nursing altogether without endangering the life of the child. Notwithstanding the fundamental importance of breast nursing, this function which distinguishes mammals from other members of the animal kingdom, seems to be becoming increasingly difficult for women. The wear and tear of modern life, with its demands upon the mother's nervous strength and upon her time, and other factors less definitely recognized, have made it impossible for the human race to offer to its progeny the sustenance intended by nature and which is granted as a natural right to the pig in the sty, to the pup in the kennel,—the right of the young to obtain its nutriment from its mother until it be able to digest the ordinary food.

It must be remembered that the mammalian young are not fully developed at birth as are the birds or reptiles, but that in each species the mother's milk is exactly adapted to bring about this development, and that the milk of any other animal is at best a foreign material. It is almost as reasonable *a priori*, to expect an unhatched chick to thrive on corn as a new born baby to flourish on the milk of another animal.

With these facts in mind we can deplore with reason the fact that so many of the human race must be bottle fed, and can understand the importance of securing, when necessary, for the immature and delicate infant the best possible substitute for its natural nutriment. Space will not permit even a reference to the numerous artificial foods on the market that are extolled as substitutes for mother's milk. They all of them are

deficient in essential ingredients and at best can be used safely, only for comparatively short periods.¹

The Situation. We are obliged, then, to confront not a theory but the following conditions:

1. A very large number of the children of our large cities, including Baltimore, must be bottle fed.

2. Cow's milk offers the only practical substitute for mother's milk for these infants.

3. A very large number of infants become sick and die each year in Baltimore from diseases directly attributable to bad nourishment.

The arraignment of impure and dishonest milk is even more justly severe than has been heretofore indicated, for not only is a large share of the infant death rate attributable to it, but also because a considerable number of children dying from other causes, for example, infectious diseases, bronchitis and from pneumonia, might have recovered if properly fed before and during their illness.

What, then, is the character of the milk accessible in Baltimore to the average mother having to bring up her baby on the bottle?

In a comprehensive investigation by the Thomas Wilson Sanitarium the attempt was made to follow the milk from the cow to the baby by collecting samples from various dairy farms, from the cans as they were unloaded at the railroad stations, from the delivery wagons from the large and small dairies and again from the stores. The result can be summarized briefly.

In all 293 samples were examined. The milk was found to average 76,000 bacteria to

¹The one most generally in vogue in Baltimore is a form of condensed milk. The results of this preparation are seductive. Often the infants taking it seem to thrive. They increase in weight and appear well. They are subject, however, to certain grave constitutional disorders which come on insidiously and may for all time affect the child's health. It is the consensus of medical opinion that infants fed exclusively on condensed milk or upon any proprietary food are less resistant to disease than are the children given fresh milk. Our mortality at the Thomas Wilson Sanitarium is twice as great for condensed milk babies as for infants fed on cow's milk.

²In an earlier investigation, the average temperature of samples obtained in summer from dealers in all parts of the city was 65.50% at which there is rapid proliferation of the contained bacteria.

1 c. c. on the better farms, 350,000 on the ordinary farms, 1,750,000 at the railroad stations, about 4,000,000 in the delivery wagons and 5,000,000 at the small stores and dairies, while in the larger dairies there were 1,340,000 bacteria in the same quantity. Moreover, preservatives, usually formaldehyde, were found to be present in 15% of all samples at the stations, and in nearly 50% of the samples taken from wagons and small stores.

This study shows the rapid deterioration of milk in its passage from the cow to the baby when it is not accompanied at every step with honest, scrupulous care and efficient refrigeration.

It was the opinion of those conducting the investigation that a number of not too strenuous regulations rigidly enforced would greatly improve the milk without adding materially to the cost of production.

The Milk Dispensary.

In June, 1904, through the generosity of a public spirited citizen, the Thomas Wilson Sanitarium was enabled to establish five stations in Baltimore for the distribution of modified milk for infants.

From the outset it was designed to place the dispensaries at the disposal of the physicians of the city, asking them to recommend for the milk such babies for whom good milk could not otherwise be procured. A uniform charge of ten cents daily, somewhat less than cost, is made for each mixture, sufficient for twenty-four hours, put up in feeding bottles ready for immediate use. The number of bacteria in this milk rarely reaches 10,000 per c. c.

During the first year 128,765 bottles were distributed among 553 babies, while in seven months of the second year 126,525 bottles have been furnished to 321 infants. The stations are, for the most part, in the same buildings with the Charity Organization Society agents and the instructive visiting nurses, and are presided over by experienced trained nurses who keep records of each baby, weigh it at short intervals, make reports to the physician who referred the case, and visit it frequently in the home.

Of more than 800 patients supplied by the Thomas Wilson Sanitarium Dis-

dispensaries less than fifty have died who have been on the rolls more than one week, a mortality rate of six and two-tenths per thousand, about one-third the general figures for infants under one year, notwithstanding the fact that many extremely ill cases were referred to the stations for their nourishment.¹

In forming a judgment of the value of milk dispensaries clinical testimony should be given more weight than statistics, and this testimony is almost universally favorable. It is gratifying to be assured as has been done by several of the physicians at the city's dispensaries that with the establishment of the milk stations they are now saving babies that would have been lost without this aid.

The effect of the dispensaries is largely educational. The frequent conferences with the nurses, both at the office and in the home, give the mothers many new view points and has a subtle influence for good which is hard to over-estimate.

It is just here that some of the most useful lessons can be taught by the instructive nurse and friendly visitor in these house to house visitations. They should be alert to notice if the milk can or pitcher is not clean; if flies have access to the milk; if the milk dipper has various other uses and if ice is an unknown luxury during the warm weather.

Imagine the consternation if 500 adult citizens were condemned to die each year through the indifference of their fellows, or were carried off by some epidemic which might have been largely checked. Yet just as surely as the summer comes will there result the usual

epidemic of intestinal disorders among the children badly housed and fed which will destroy as many, and there will be no outcry whatever. A lady was complaining on one occasion to Dr. Osler that Providence had seen fit to take her little child, when the doctor interrupted with the remark, "Providence had nothing to do with it; it was dirty milk." There is a potential value about the life of a child which even this sharp commercial age has missed. If through care and skill a middle-aged mechanic is nursed back to life after a long illness, he is a middle-aged mechanic still, who after a few years of toil falls finally asleep; but in a country such as ours who can tell what the future of a child saved from infant death may become.

The infant whose right to receive its sustenance at its mother's breast is denied, has certainly the right to demand that its artificial food, at best a second rate substitute, shall be clean and honest, and at least crudely adapted to its feeble digestive powers. The strongholds of indifference and ignorance must be first captured, not by fanatical emotion, but by a fair and persistent presentation of facts. It can be shown that notwithstanding the increasing wealth and commercial importance of Baltimore the high death rate of children per thousand of her citizens has remained about the same for a dozen years, largely because there has been no corresponding improvement in the character of the milk supply or in the hygienic conditions existing in the homes of the masses.

Until these new standards are more generally recognized, particularly until the hygienic conditions amid which the working classes live have been bettered, the milk dispensaries will continue to play an increasingly useful role in the reduction of sickness and death among infants.

¹ There is merit in the use of the feeding bottle with just sufficient in each for one nursing. One cannot visit in the homes from which many of our patients come without being skeptical of the possibility of properly either keeping or modifying the milk on the premises if it is supplied in bulk.

Dairy Work Under the United States Department of Agriculture

Clarence B. Lane

Assistant Chief of the Dairy Division

Considering the fact that no crop but corn produces an income equal to that of the dairy cow, it is very important that the national government should have a Dairy Division to look after the interests of those engaged in this work. The division was organized in July, 1895; and at the present time there are forty men on the force, most of whom are trained scientists. The policy of the division now is to *show* dairymen modern methods by means of object lessons and practical work rather than to *tell* them how through bulletins and circulars.

The most recent work taken up has been the inauguration of a milk and cream exhibit at the National Dairy Show in Chicago. Exhibits were made in three classes:

Class I, certified milk—that is milk sold under a guarantee as to its percentage contained;¹

Class II, market milk, or milk that is sold without any guarantee and without any special standard;²

Class III, cream.

Much interest was manifested in this contest from the start and responses came from all parts of the country—thirteen different states being represented, some samples coming from as far east as Boston, from the South as far as Maryland, and from Kansas on the West. An exhibit of milk has never been brought together at one time and place and subjected to such a thorough examination. Much less difficulty was experienced in scoring the product and awarding the medals than was anticipated. By heating the milk to a temperature of 100 degrees, any taints in the flavor could readily be detected, and the quality determined. Many thought that such a test would be impossible, owing to the difficulty of shipping cream

¹ The bacteria ranged from none to 51,000 and averaged 7,877.

² The bacteria ranged from none to 21,000,000 and, leaving out the highest, averaged 39,273.

such long distances and putting it upon a fair basis in regard to the time it was produced. The results, however, demonstrated that it is possible to score milk and cream as accurately as butter and cheese, or any other product. Some of the samples remained sweet for seven weeks.

The Dairy Division is taking up a number of lines of work, including a study of the problems in butter and cheese making.³ Such questions as amount of salt, pasteurization, temperature, quality of cream, and time of storage are under investigation. The important subject of fishy flavors in storage butters has received careful attention. Problems of churning and working, and the important problem of hand separated cream and its treatment are also being investigated. This work is being done in co-operation with the experiment station at Ames, Iowa, and reports are being prepared and will soon be published.

Problems in cheese making have also been taken up, including making, curing, storing and paraffining cheese, and its digestibility at different stages of ripening. Several thousand pounds of cheese are now in storage at Plymouth, Wisconsin, and it is expected the results will be of much interest and value to cheese men.

One man has been constantly engaged during the past year in studying the dairy problems of the South with a view to assisting in development there. The force will soon be increased and it is

³ For over two years investigations have been under way in the manufacture of Camembert cheese in co-operation with the Experiment Station at Storrs, Connecticut. The work was taken up in hope that a product could be produced in this country which would rival this kind of cheese made in France and thus give the farmers and dairymen an opportunity to produce the million pounds or more of this variety of cheese which is now imported. Pure cultures are now prepared of the important molds and can readily be distributed to those desiring to produce the cheese. Such experiments will have a permanent influence upon the milk supply, giving stability to the dairy industry.

hoped to establish demonstration farms in the different sections to be used as headquarters for object lessons and disseminating information in modern dairy practices.

Another prominent feature of the work of the Division is that of preparing plans for farm buildings. Dairy inspectors who travel about the country will tell you that most of the barns are dark and damp, poorly lighted and poorly ventilated, resulting not only in the cows being unhealthy but in poor dairy products—not only milk but butter and cheese as well.

The milk supply of several cities has been carefully studied and some work has been done along the line of dairy machinery and appliances, methods of handling and pasteurizing milk.

The division will soon do some work along the line of dairy farm and stock management. The cow test asso-

ciation in Europe has been a great benefit to dairymen, and equal rewards are promised in this country if this idea is adopted.

These are times of great progress in many of our industries and the dairy industry is keeping pace with others. The dairy farmer in many of our country towns now has the trolley, the rural delivery and telephone which keeps him in touch with his markets.¹ The progressive dairyman knows what it costs him to produce a hundred pounds of milk or a pound of butter, what it costs to keep each cow in his herd a year, what it costs to raise crops,—in fact, he is a first-class business man.

¹One of the most recent machines to which his attention is being called is the cow milker. After many years of waiting and many disappointments improvements have been perfected in these machines which make them simple in construction and so far as the investigations of the Dairy Division have gone thoroughly harmless and rapid in their work.

Tuberculosis of Cattle

How it may be repressed and its relation to public health¹

Leonard Pearson

Philadelphia

Now that we know that tubercle bacilli of bovine type are virulent for man, we know that milk carrying them is freighted with danger. So much established, the next important question is as to the frequency of the occurrence of tubercle bacilli in milk. It will probably be sufficient to say that tubercle bacilli are most plentiful in milk and milk is most dangerous when the cow suffers with tuberculosis of the udder. Even though the milk of a cow with tuberculosis of the udder be diluted with

the milk from a number of large herds, the mixture still continues to be infectious. But tubercle bacilli may also occur in the milk when the udder is healthy. The danger in such cases is in proportion to the extent of disease in the cow. One of the striking points regarding tuberculosis of cattle is that the disease may be very extensively developed without producing external signs. This peculiarity was very strikingly shown in the case of a fat steer that was awarded a prize at the great livestock show in Chicago.

Where there are in a stable cows with extensive tuberculosis of the lungs, tubercle bacilli are scattered widely and may be deposited on the hair of the cows. Moreover, as cows do not expectorate but swallow their sputum excepting when it is coughed out, tubercle bacilli may be passed in great numbers with the dung. Therefore, as the milk is soiled by the dust and dirt from the flanks and udder of the cows, from the

¹The first part of this address was given over to a discussion of investigations bearing upon Koch's famous declaration before the British medical congress in 1901 that bovine tuberculosis is of such slight importance to the public health that no action need be taken in regard to it. "The recent great additions to our knowledge of the bacteriology of tuberculosis," said Mr. Pearson, "have made it possible to distinguish the bovine from the human type of tubercle bacillus; and studies in nearly all civilized countries show that the bovine bacillus is the cause of a varying amount of disease in the human being. These studies are not yet sufficient to justify one in drawing any conclusions as to the actual frequency of the infections. But that the same kind of tubercle bacillus that produces diseases in cattle may produce disease in man, there appears to be no room for difference of opinion.

hands of the milker and from the stable air, it may become contaminated by tubercle bacilli from these sources.

But most of this danger can be avoided, as I have said, by sufficiently frequent and careful physical examinations of milch cows. Unfortunately, however, even this precaution is rarely taken by states or municipalities. Among the exceptions is Massachusetts, which has the most complete system of herd inspection of any state. In Pennsylvania it is required under a new law that cattle with tuberculosis of the udder or with advanced or generalized tuberculosis shall be reported to the State Livestock Sanitary Board, whereupon they are destroyed.

The introduction of a general system of dairy inspection would perhaps have made more rapid progress if it had not been for the introduction of the tuberculin test.¹ This method has shown such an appalling amount of infection among the dairy cows of some regions that the extermination of such animals cannot be seriously considered. It would be highly unjust to the owners of such animals, and for the state to pay for them would require an enormous and impossible appropriation. More than this, it is unnecessary. But the cost of exterminating animals afflicted with open or clinical tuberculosis, tuberculosis that may be detected by physical examination, falls within such limits as to make the plan feasible. In Massachusetts, for example, the amount of indemnity for such cows amounts to about \$30,000 a year.

It is unfortunate that so many people are unwilling to support a proposed movement because it is not ideally complete and perfect. Because such an inspection as I have outlined will not lead to the complete eradication of tuberculosis among cows and will not insure the production and sale of milk wholly free from tubercle bacilli, some people are unwilling to accept the 90% gain that will come from the application of this system.

¹By this means the very early cases of infection can be discovered, even before the disease has reached a stage that renders the afflicted animal dangerous to other cattle or to the consumer of its products. Formerly only such animals were classed as tuberculous as showed physical signs.

But if an ideal condition cannot be obtained with relation to the general milk supply of a large city, it may be obtained on a small scale. In nearly every large city there is some special milk supply that is wholly above reproach. Being sold under the certificate of a commission, milk of this character is commonly known as "certified milk." To the credit of Baltimore it should be said that certified milk on sale in your city, was recently awarded the highest prize at the National Dairy Show, held in Chicago.

In searching for a reason for the tardy development of the application of sanitary methods on dairy farms we find that it is chiefly due to lack of knowledge and indifference on the part of the consumer. Until consumers, and physicians, know what clean milk is, and demand clean milk, and demand information as to the conditions under which milk is produced, the production of safe and clean milk will not be encouraged.

It was found through investigation made three years ago by the Keystone Veterinary Association in Philadelphia that nearly all the hospitals and public institutions in that city were buying milk as they would buy coal, from the lowest bidder, and without any standards for inspection, or requirements as to the cleanliness and the sanitary conditions of the milk, the farms or the cows. Further investigation showed that much of this milk came from such sources that it could not be safe or clean. The situation is now much better. Most of the hospitals require information and a guarantee as to the kind of milk that is supplied to them.

There must be some means of controlling the accuracy of reports of milk dealers as to the conditions governing their supplies. This means should be furnished by the Department of Health of the city or by the Livestock Sanitary Board of the state.

Heretofore, nearly all of the work that has been done in this direction, has been done to repress tuberculosis of cattle for the purpose of controlling it as a *disease of cattle* just as contagious pleuro pneumonia and Texas fever are con-

trolled as diseases of cattle and not on account of any relation of these diseases to public health. As a disease of cattle alone, tuberculosis is of sufficient importance to justify expenditures very much greater than have yet been made for its control in any state.

The method for controlling tuberculosis of cattle that has proved most effective is that based on the detection of tuberculous animals by the use of the tuberculin test, and their isolation. Denmark has done more in this direction than any other country. During the past four years, considerable work has been done by the Livestock Sanitary Board of Pennsylvania for the purpose of de-

veloping a practicable system for the immunization of cattle from tuberculosis by vaccination. We have worked out a method which we know is effective but which cannot be applied to all dairy cattle on account of the tremendous expense. It will be first applied where the need is greatest, and for a long time it will continue to be advisable to follow the plan for the frequent physical inspection of dairy herds that I have outlined. In the meantime, bovine tubercle bacilli need not be fed to infants, for certified milk is available and dother milk may be rendered safe in respect to this factor by adequate pasteurization.

The Present Needs of the Milk Supply of Baltimore

C. Hampson Jones, M.D.

Assistant Commissioner of Health, Baltimore

My purpose is not to convince you of the vileness of milk, for it is not vile, but to elucidate some features of the marketing of milk which, if improved, will lessen or entirely remove unseen dangers that lurk in it.

The establishment of the chemical and bacteriological laboratories of the health department in 1896 and the appointment of food inspectors, who were empowered to arrest offenders and to destroy food below legal requirements, inaugurated a change in our milk supply which has resulted in a permanent improvement, as must be apparent to everyone who can remember the conditions in 1895. It is true that our inspectors have spilt 557 gallons of milk during the last three months because it was below a specific gravity of 1029, and that in a short time we will spill milk because it has been preserved with formaldehyde, yet it also remains true that less of these spillings are required than in former years.

Our milk is received from three sources—first, from cows in stables within the city limits; second, from dairies just beyond the city's boundaries and brought in by wagons, and third, from the farm districts that de-

pend upon the railroads for transportation.

The city producers supply 1200 to 1500 gallons of milk by distribution direct to consumers or small stores. The abolition of a number of such stables within our city limits,¹ was not an unmixed blessing, because a few of them were simply transferred to the outlying district, where they have developed into a greater menace to health than when they were within the jurisdiction of the health department. Their closeness to the city—a mile or two beyond the limits—permits the milk to be brought twice daily into the city without necessitating that care to keep the milk cool and clean which a producer at a greater distance knows is necessary in order to prevent the milk from souring.

Confined in one place were 68 cows. When the stable door was closed there was not enough light to make all of the cows clearly visible. There was no ventilation except that which the stable-owners could not prevent. Vapors and foul odors arose from the

¹ In 1902 an ordinance caused the number of cow stables within the city limits to be reduced from 398 to the present number—274—a reduction of 124. Of these 274, all but eighty-six are private stables. This ordinance will still further reduce the number of such stables as the city is built up, because the owners will not be able to obtain the required one-quarter acre of land contiguous to the stable.

hot, wet bodies and discharged wastes from the animals. A peculiar, penetrating acid odor was added by swill and other food-stuffs; the footway, part of the stalls and the bodies of cows were wet with urine, and the cows' hindquarters caked with dried manure (an accumulation of days and weeks). The poor beasts are kept chained up in such a place for months without fresh air, sunlight or exercise. The width of the stalls is barely enough to let the cows lie down, and the stalls are too short to keep the tails of the cows from lying in filth in the trenches that are intended to act as drains. In perfect keeping with such conditions we find the "milkmaids." Their clothing is filthy, and if they ever washed their faces and hands it must have been done unintentionally. Filthiness was especially evidenced by the condition of their hands, which were shaded by layers of manure that differed one from the other in age only.

The framework of the stable was festooned with cobwebs; whitewash was apparently unknown, and filth covered the sides and rafters. The "milkmaids" sleep in a loft above, which is heated by the body-heat of the cows. The 40-quart cans were in bad condition, and were kept in a small, dirty, dark shed just outside the stable. They were uncovered and filled with milk. This stable was the worst of all. There were others that presented conditions almost as vile. On March 19, 1906, the bacteriological laboratory reported an examination made of the milk produced at this place. One cubic centimeter of the specimen taken from the milk bucket showed 7,920,000 bacteria. These stables are not kept by Americans nor by such foreign-born people as the Germans.

In contrast—in the same neighborhood, surrounded by the same political and social conditions, with the same price for milk—is a stable kept by a German. This place is so well lighted that we did not use the flashlight to obtain a photograph; it was clean, whitewashed, and well ventilated; the floor was of cement and well drained; the man was clean, his helpers (who were his children) were clean, and they apparently took great pride in their cows and stable. The stable was not perfect, but it was a splendid example for others to follow, and proved beyond all question that the pleadings of others that poverty and the price of milk prevent them from adopting our suggestions for improvement are nonsensical. A specimen of milk from the milk bucket showed less than 10,000 bacteria per cubic centimeter. This man was not alone in the cleanliness of his cows and stable, and it appeals to me that such men, who of their own accord have endeavored to give our citizens milk that is not offensive to decency and health, should be helped in their work by giving them the approval of the health department.

The milk from these nearby sources

amounts to 2,000 gallons daily. It is distributed directly to consumers by wagons, or indirectly through stores, or still more indirectly through wholesalers, who supply retailers who own wagons or stores.

There are about 326 shippers of milk by railroad, and it is estimated that they send to Baltimore 24,525 gallons of milk daily. In these country districts—the real country—we find a condition of affairs far from perfect, but nevertheless good and encouraging. It is to these that the city must finally look for its entire milk supply, because, as the city grows, our city and suburban dairies will vanish. My visits to these farms showed me cows in fine physical condition; they were clean and of good breeding for the production of milk and cream. The stables for the most part were clean and whitewashed, and usually well drained. We found milk buckets and milk cans clean and out in direct sunlight. The dairies varied a great deal in their distance from the cow barns. Some were next to and directly communicating with the stables; others were quite a distance off, located over a spring. The interior of these dairies was clean and utensils in good condition. The bedding for the cows was of straw or hay; feed troughs and chutes were frequently found in the stables, all of which increase the number of bacteria in the atmosphere. Very frequently the water wells were too close to barnyards and other filth collectors, the seepage from which must reach the water wells sooner or later. The barnyards in many instances were passageways for cows from the fields to barn and return, thereby collecting filth that is with difficulty removed before milking, which makes it likely that it is frequently not removed at all.

These farms are usually within a radius of four miles from the railroad stations, and most of them not more than two and one-half miles and the stations themselves are probably all within fifty-five miles of Baltimore. The milk from the most distant station is not more than two hours and

a half traveling to the city. The city has two inspectors of milk, who are required to meet milk trains. After they are through with the station work they turn their attention to the milk delivery wagons and the stores, carrying out the same regulations as at the stations.

During the last few weeks these inspectors, the inspector of city dairies and the inspector of markets, have assisted in obtaining milk specimens for bacteria counts, dust cultures from stables, and samples of milk to show the gross dirt. In the counts made from specimens from the milk bucket and milk cans in the producers' stables (city and suburban only), the cleanest stables gave the lowest count—10,000—while the dirtiest gave 7,920,000 in one cubic centimeter of milk. The counts of specimens from the railroad stations clearly show that something more than time, distance, and methods of transportation cause the great difference in the number of bacteria, because these three items are practically the same for all shippers from the same station. In three specimens coming from the same station the count ranges from 70,000 to 2,524,000.

Enough has been shown to convince you that there is need of more and greater work by your health department. This greater work is to be accomplished:—

First need: Relations of trust and confidence between the producer, dealer and health department, thereby producing a hearty co-operation. To do this it is of first importance for the producer to understand that it is of no advantage to a health department to impose unnecessary and burdensome regulations on the producer. What we desire is quick delivery of pure milk into the city, and this simply means to deliver the milk as nearly as possible in the same condition as it is taken from the udder. Therefore, it is necessary to cool the milk below 50° F. as soon as possible, thus retarding the multiplication of the few germs naturally in the milk, to keep it at a low temperature until delivered at the station, and to avoid adding anything to the milk accidentally or intentionally.

I am sure that the evil conditions of farm dairies are due to the fact that the dairy business is a sort of addition to the general farm work. If one producer can now send milk to this city with but 10,000 organisms per cubic centimeter and his neigh-

bor sends milk with 5,000,000 per cubic centimeter, there is something wrong in the management, and not the cost of production. It will be the function and desire of health officials not only to guard the purity of the milk, but also to assist the farmer in their efforts honestly made to meet requirements.

Second need: Better care of milk en route to the city and quicker transportation, improvements in the roadbeds and special milk trains. All the trains during a greater part or all the year should have sectional refrigerator cars. The railroad milk platform should be covered, and it may be necessary to have it artificially cooled, so that the cooled milk brought from the farm may be kept at 50° F.

Third need: For all milk dealers to establish modern, up-to-date dairies, where the milk can be properly cleansed, perhaps pasteurized and cooled, in rooms free from dust and flies, and to allow nothing that has not been sterilized to come in contact with the milk. All dealers should deliver milk in bottles, except to hotels and institutions. Sterilizing plants should be established not only for milk bottles, but also for thoroughly cleansing and sterilizing milk cans before they are returned to the producers.

Fourth need: That the consumer shall become acquainted with the qualities of good milk, and demand it. The real control of the milk trade is largely in the hands of the public. More, what the public demands of the producer and dealer or purveyor should be practiced by the public. Milk containers should be for milk alone. Whether it is a bottle or pitcher, it should be cleaned and sterilized when emptied. When it contains milk it should not be allowed to remain uncovered; it should be kept cool; it should never be permitted to remain in a sickroom, and should be immediately sterilized and removed from the room. In your households there is as much, and probably more, chance for milk to be contaminated with infectious diseases as in the producer's barn. A tuberculous servant is much more dangerous than one tuberculous cow in a herd.

Fifth need: That the Health Department of Baltimore city be immediately informed of the occurrence of sickness on a dairy farm, so that the proper officials could act in time to protect the milk from contamination, and sufficient power be given them to employ whatever measures may be deemed necessary in any case.

Sixth need: There should be co-operation of the Maryland Live-Stock Sanitary Board, State Board of Health, and our City Health Department in the supervision of the health of the dairy cattle.

In these diseases the power should be given to segregate all sick cows, whether the disease be tuberculosis or a disease pro-

ducing pus in milk,¹ in order to keep the milk from market and to destroy such cattle if necessary. I believe that it should not be left to the owners of dairy herds to decide whether tuberculin tests should be made or not, but that it should be done by state or city authority, or both. I cannot here enter into a discussion concerning the costs of such work, but I beg leave to say that the city and state will stop at no expense to prevent or stamp out smallpox, yellow fever, cholera, etc., and provide for it out of the general tax levy. I can see no real difference between those diseases and the summer complaint of children, except the latter, like the poor, are always with us. In 1905 803 children died of this trouble in Baltimore.

¹Swithinbank and Newman give the credit to Dr. Stokes of Baltimore for the first work demonstrating pus in milk and showing it to be one of the probable causes of the summer complaint of children, and yet we are almost the last to move to put our knowledge into use.

Morbific and Infectious Milk¹

George M. Kober, M.D.

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Few countries until recently have deemed it necessary to do more than prevent adulteration of the milk. Some legislators appear to think that as long as the milk has not been skimmed or watered, and contains the standard of total solids and fats, we need not worry about the germs we eat or drink. This may be a pleasing reflection to persons who do not know that such hydra-headed diseases as scarlet fever, diphtheria, and cholera infantum have been disseminated in the milk supply, that typhoid-fever epidemics have been thus caused, and that milk may be the vehicle of the germs of tuberculosis and other infectious diseases and morbid agents.

The various milk faults such as abnormal color, odor, taste and consistency are usually due to the presence of chromogenic and other micro-organisms. Milk-sediments are always evidence of unclean habits. Every consumer of milk has doubtless observed the presence of more or less foreign matter at the bottom of the vessel or bottle in which it is kept; indeed, it is a matter of such common occurrence that it hardly excites attention, and many are disposed to look upon it as a matter of

Seventh need: That the Health Department be permitted to establish a distinct subdivision, to be known as the "milk division," which shall be in charge of a thorough and practical milkman, who knows the sources of contamination, and whose duty it shall be to point out to the producer or dealer a way to avoid them. The force of inspectors should be increased, so that a more thorough daily inspection can be made; that it also be permitted to establish a system of licensing all producers and dealers, the issuance of such licenses to be governed by the obedience to the department's regulations by the applicants, but that no fee shall be charged for the license.

Eighth need: To have our friends, the members of the honorable board of estimates, to see these things from our viewpoint.

course. Professor Soxhelt of Munich was perhaps the first to point out that these deposits are largely made up of excrementitious matter from the cow, which, adhering to the udder of the animal, gained access to the bucket during the act of milking.

If subjected to microscopical examination, we shall find that they are composed of epithelial debris, hairs of the cow, excrementitious matter, vegetable fibers, organic and inorganic dust particles, bacteria, fungi, and spores of every description. Fully 90 per cent of the germs are intestinal bacteria, all of which is not only disgusting, but extremely suggestive of danger. The number of micro-organisms in such milk is largely increased, and we know that bacterial development and consequent decomposition are materially hastened in such a medium, and that the conversion of lactic sugar into lactic acid, apart from impairing the nutritive value, may cause gastro-intestinal disorders in delicate infants.

The greatest danger from milk of this class is the possible presence of tyrotoxicon and toxins capable of producing cholera infantum and even cases of ptomaine poisoning.

Milk may be rendered unfit for use by improper food and care of the ani-

¹In his address Dr. Kober presented an exhaustive scientific survey of the ground so briefly covered in this abstract. The entire address is published by the *Maryland Medical Journal*.

mal, and toxic properties may be imparted while animals have been feeding on poisonous forage plants, or while the animals are being treated with strong remedial agents which are excreted in the milk. Again, milk may be morbid as the product of a diseased animal. Milk of cows suffering from puerperal and septic fevers, gastro-enteric diseases, foot and mouth disease, cow pox, anthrax, rabies and tetanus may produce sickness in the consumer. A disease resembling scarlet fever and diphtheria may be produced by the milk of cows suffering from some inflammatory and suppurative condition of the udder and teats. On the subject of the transmission of tuberculosis through the milk supply space does not admit of a review of the extended literature on the subject. Klencke, in 1846, was the first to write on the infectiousness and transmission of scrofula by cow's milk. In his book of 90 pages he gives the clinical histories of 16 children who had been fed with the milk of scrofulous and tuberculous cows, and they all point to tuberculosis of either the intestines, glands, skin, or bone. When we consider the comparatively large number of children under five years who perish from primary tuberculous ulceration of the intestinal tract, tuberculous peritonitis and tabes mesenterica and the fact that the food of these children consists largely of unboiled milk the chain of evidence seems well nigh complete but has been materially strengthened by eighty-six cases of milk bovine tuberculosis published by the speaker in 1903. Moreover Salmon has analyzed the vital statistics of Massachusetts, and finds *an increase of 36 per cent in the forms of tuberculosis other than phthisis in the class under five years of age*, while there was *a reduction in the mortality of phthisis at all other ages of about 45 per cent*, and the vital statistics of Michigan from 1885 to 1900 show also a tremendous increase during the milk-drinking age. All of which justifies the conclusion that tuberculosis may be transmitted to man in milk from tuberculous cows.

Finally milk may acquire infective properties after it leaves the udder of

the animal. In a communication to the International Medical Congress at Paris in 1900, the writer presented his conclusions, based upon the tabulated histories collected by him of 330 outbreaks of infectious diseases spread through the milk supply. These outbreaks consist of 195 epidemics of typhoid fever, 99 epidemics of scarlet fever, and 36 epidemics of diphtheria.

It has been demonstrated by numerous bacteriologists that disease germs may not only survive, but in many instances actually proliferate in the milk, and it is not a difficult matter to point out the many ways by which these germs gain access, especially when some of the employes are also engaged in nursing the sick, or are suffering themselves from some mild infection while continuing their duties, or are convalescent from the disease. It is quite conceivable how animals wading in filth and sewage-polluted water may infect the udder with the germs of typhoid fever and through it the milk. We can also appreciate how infected water may convey the germs by washing the utensils or by deliberate adulterations. Infection may also take place by means of scrubbing brushes, dishcloths, exposure to infected air, and last, but not least, through the agency of flies.

Of the 195 epidemics of typhoid fever tabulated by me there is evidence in 148 of the disease having prevailed at the farm or dairy. In 67 instances the infection probably reached the milk by percolation of the germs into the well water with which the utensils were washed; in sixteen of these the intentional dilution with water is a matter of evidence. In three instances the bacillus coli communis and the typhoid germs were demonstrated in the suspected water. In seven instances infection is attributed to the cows wading in sewage-polluted water and pastures. In twenty-four instances the dairy employes also acted as nurses. In ten instances the patients while suffering from a mild attack or during the onset of the disease continued their work, and those who are familiar with the personal habits of the average dairy hands will have no difficulty in surmising the manner of direct

digital infections. In one instance the milk tins were washed with the same cloth which had been in use among the fever patients. In two instances the dairy employes were connected with the night-soil service, and in another instance the milk had been kept in a closet in the sickroom.

Of the ninety-nine epidemics of scarlet fever the disease prevailed, in sixty-eight instances, either at the dairy or at the milk farm. In six instances persons connected with the dairy either lodged in or had visited infected houses. In two instances the infection was conveyed by means of infected bottles or milk cans left in scarlet-fever houses. In seventeen instances the infection was conveyed by persons connected with the milk business while suffering or recovering from the disease, and in at least ten instances by persons who had acted as nurses while handling the milk. In three instances the milk had been stored in or close by the sickroom. In one instance the can had been wiped with an infected cloth.

Of the thirty-six outbreaks of diphtheria tabulated there is evidence that the disease prevailed at the dairy or farm in thirteen instances. In three instances the employes continued to handle the milk while suffering themselves from the disease. In twelve instances the disease is attributed directly to the cows having inflammatory conditions of the teats and udders. These instances, however, may be regarded as typical examples of streptococcus and staphylococcus infection, giving rise to a form of follicular tonsilitis or pseudo-diphtheria, often difficult to distinguish clinically from true diphtheria or scarlet fever.

Only a limited number of cholera epidemics were traced to infected dairies.

Sufficient data have been given to indicate the necessity of sanitary control of the milk traffic. It is highly desirable that some uniform legislation, preferably a national pure-food law, be enacted to regulate the inspection of dairy farms, etc., for, as it is now, milk consumed in New York city for example,

may be produced in a number of states over which, of course, the local authorities have no jurisdiction.

All persons engaged in handling the milk should be free from disease. No family ever thinks of employing or keeping a cook afflicted with a communicable disease, and yet not the slightest restriction is placed upon nor a question asked about, the persons who handle our milk supply, which we know affords an excellent culture medium for disease germs. After the recital of numerous epidemics and milk-borne diseases we need hardly insist upon the necessity of compulsory notification of all infectious diseases, and that the milk should *not* be permitted to leave a farm, dairy, or milk shop during the existence of any of these diseases among the inmates or employes, nor should the latter be permitted to reside in or visit infected premises while engaged in the milk traffic without permission from the health department.

There is nothing strained in these requirements, as good and sufficient reasons have been adduced, and by their enforcement we may hope to obtain such a standard of milk as will not only effect a decided reduction in infantile mortality, but will render the dissemination of infectious diseases through the milk supply a matter of history only. Until this is accomplished we should patronize only such dealers as sell "certified milk," or subject the milk in pint bottles to pasteurization at a temperature of 155° F. for 30 minutes, and after cooling keep it on ice. This will not make bad milk good, but it will at least destroy its infectiousness.

In conclusion, let us be fair in this educational campaign to the milk producer. Let us emphasize the fact (and here I speak from personal experience) that ideal milk supplies cannot be attained without increased cost of production, and in the interest of public health and the many helpless babes deprived of their natural food we should be loyal to our American conception of a "square deal."

The Role of Pure Cow's Milk in Infant Feeding¹

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New York

Nine previous lectures have made you acquainted with good cow's milk and the methods of obtaining it and keeping it fresh and germ free. Instruction on the topic of infant mortality and the dietary prevention of tuberculosis, cholera, typhoid, scarlatina, and diphtheria has been thrown in for good measure. Finally, I have been requested to speak to you on the value of your good and pure Baltimore milk in the feeding of your babies and those of your rich and poor neighbors.

Rich and poor! As the breasts of the rich and the poor mother contain the same natural food, so its substitute should be the same for the demands of the rich and the poor baby. Democratic nature knows no difference of classes.

It is true a great Boston pediatricist has blamed New Yorkers for insisting upon supplying the poor and rich alike, and thereby rendering the solution of the feeding problem more difficult. But I have ever been of the opinion that those who are to till the soil, to build our roads, to man our ships and factories, and add to the wealth and power of the country should, while infants and children, be prepared for their tasks by a competent food.

The immense literature of the subject is not so well known as it appears to many. I have been mixed up with good and bad milk these fifty or more years, and have come to the conclusion that I should wish to see the end of the discussions. After some preliminary attacks, I tackled the subject in the first volume of that epoch-making Handbuch of Carl Gerhardt.

In that year, 1876, I collected a list of a thousand books, pamphlets and essays on woman's, ass's, goat's and cow's milk—and still they came and are coming. There are tens of thousands in all

languages. In extenuation of my many serious shortcomings I may claim that I have not read all of them. When a play has a run of 600 representations you go to one, perhaps, but not to the 600. It is only Homer or Shakespeare or Goethe you can read all the time.

Bad and germ-filled cow's milk is a danger to digestion, and is apt to disseminate infectious and contagious diseases. These dangers are avoided when cow's milk is pure. It is in the interest of those who are alive and anxious not to be killed, in the interest of the city and state, and of mankind, present and future, that milk *should* be clean and pure. When it has these properties it may be used for infant-feeding, but *not* in its pure, unmitigated, unmodified condition. It is true there are babies that no improper feeding, no indecent handling, no coarse or over-civilized maltreatment will destroy. These iron-clad young specimens of mankind are the excuses for the teaching—mainly in Paris, France, but also in its suburbs located in America—that pure cow's milk is the proper substitute for woman's milk. That is a mistake. Exceptional successes do not, as a silly proverb has it, prove the rule.

Cow's milk is no woman's milk, nor can any cow's milk ever so well modified or changed or adapted be equivalent to a healthy woman's good milk. The occasional possibility of obtaining good cow's milk, the theoretical teaching disseminated in good and bad books and pamphlets that chemical compositions suffice for the physiological demands of the young infant organism, and the imperturbable ubiquity of the proprietary-food vendor and advertiser have worked a great deal of harm in encouraging the reluctance of women to nurse their own babies. If the present and future babies are to live as hearty and competent citizens of this republic, no poverty, no cruel labor law, no accident, no luxuri-

¹The complete text of this paper, from which the following pages are extracted for the lay reader, may be had in the *Maryland Medical Journal* for June and the *New York State Medical Journal* for July.

ous indolence must interfere with the nursing of infants. Not nursing one's own baby comes next to refusing to have any. Antiquity did not know of artificial infant-feeding. The first information we have of it dates at 1500. Turks, Arabs, Armenians, Kurds, the Circassians, and the Fellahs of Palestine have no artificial infant-feeding. Even wet-nursing was not indulged in in old Hellas, for Hippocrates does not even mention it. It is true wet nurses were permitted amongst the Persians and the ancient Indians, to whom Soranus gave careful instructions on the selection of a wet nurse. They were also employed by the rich Anglo-Saxons of the middle ages and amongst the ancient Romans. Even that, however, was complained of. Tacitus mourns that there were no longer any great men in Rome because they were nursed by slave wet nurses. The stout-hearted Roman, in the interest of his country, was not satisfied with having his Roman boy suckle a vigorous barbarian woman. It is we that expect the future citizens, statesmen, savants, and pioneers to thrive on proprietary foods and milk mixtures.

But there are women that have all the loving fondness and all the sense of a mother's responsibility, but no milk. Since the more appropriate ass's milk is not obtainable, theirs are the cases for pure cow's milk, as properly modified as its nature will permit.

Pure cow's milk—no matter whether raw or boiled—should not form the exclusive food of an infant. It gives rise to vomiting of hard curds and to constipation, with its results—indican and diacetic acid in the urine and secondary irritation or inflammation of the kidneys, also pyelitis. When practitioners will get into the habit of examining the easily-obtainable urines of little children, and consent to learn the fact that nephritis is a common disease in the smallest of babies—commoner, indeed, than even in the old and senile—they will appreciate the unfavorable influence in that direction of even the purest cow's milk which is fed unmixed. One of the frequent legitimate outcomes of constipa-

tion, when local irritation is the result of hard milk curds, is diarrhoea, which should not be considered as an innocent relief to the overcrowded gut, but will turn into the bad forms of microbic enteritis, the accurate knowledge of which we owe to Booker of Baltimore, Escherich of Gratz-Vienna, and Czerny of Breslau. Not a few cases of fatal atrophy owe their origin to the overfeeding with unmodified pure milk on account of the dyspepsia caused by it. Finally, though rickets is more readily produced in the infants closely confined in hot and airless rooms, mainly during the cold seasons, one of its causes is improper food materials, amongst which unchanged, undiluted milk takes a high rank.

All of this proves that pure milk should not be given as an exclusive food. I repeat that many a baby will live through such an exclusive feeding. But mere survival is not the only object of a child's bringing up; what you want is persistent good health and vitality and resisting power.

Variation in Human Milk.

What is cow's milk, and what is human milk which it is to replace? Are they always alike? By no means. It is not much easier to define the nature of a good cow's milk than that of a good human breast milk. We appreciate the clinical differences of the milks of different cows, or different herds, or races. All of them are good pure milk, however. But these differences are by no means equal to those met with among women. A baby may thrive on the milk of one woman, and not on that of another. That is why the substitution of a wet nurse for the mother is not infrequent. Even old Soranus speaks of exceptional cases of infants that thrive better at the breast of a nurse like a plant that requires an occasional transfer to a strange soil. According to Monti, the constituents of a woman's milk are only "more or less constant." That means inconstant. Johannessen and Wang (*Z. f. phys. Chemie*, XXIV) found in them the albumin to range from 0.9 to 1.3 per cent., the fat from

2.7 to 4.6 per cent., and the sugar from 5.9 to 7.55 per cent. Still, they were all good milks. They also found the amount of sugar to be less and that of fat and albumin larger toward the end of a single nursing, and the fat to reach its minimum in the course of the night. Biedert (than whom there is nobody more accurate and searching) found the nitrogen in woman's milk to vary from 0.129 to 0.192 per cent. and the fat from 1.67 to 3.35 per cent. at equal periods after birth. But these differences are not found in the same woman. Each has a fair stability in regard to nitrogen and fat, exactly like a cow. Therein lies one of the reasons why a fair amount of equality of results is obtained only when the milk of a herd is analyzed instead of that of a single cow. It might strike you, however, as quite natural that as a baby may thrive at the breast of a woman after nearly being destroyed by the milk of another healthy woman, the same thing may take place when you feed your baby on the milk of a single cow. He may not thrive on it, while the substitution of another cow, with a different milk, may be appropriate. And the great probability is that the average milk of a herd, the employment of which I advised forty years ago, will so dilute the improper qualities of the milk of a single cow by the mixture with that of fifty others as to render them uninjurious.

Of the thousands of recorded analyses of human milk and of cow's milk no two are identical. Besides, modifications of breast milk occur during nursing from minute to minute, from morning to night, on account of changes of food, state of health, during menstruation, periods of lactation, diseases, or emotions. *And they are all good breast milks and perfectly digested by the individual babies.* Even moderate changes in the health of the baby make few difficulties. The baby will adapt the quantity of the accustomed food to its pathological changes—gastritis, enteritis, or other feverish diseases—provided the proper amount of water is supplied to the baby while it is more thirsty than hungry. If exactly the same physical

and chemical composition were required, the milk of our mothers would have killed every man and woman in this hall.

**The Problem
Physiological
as Well as
Chemical.**

It has occurred to me, as it has to others, that if there were premeditation in this changeability of the milk of single women and of single cows it is surely successful. The changes in the relations of constituents mean all the proteids and carbohydrates, including sugar, and the salts. It is mostly the latter that cause the taste. In the milk of his own mother or his own cow, if, by a happy accident, the proper one has been selected, the baby has the correct composition and a proper *change*. If there were no such *changes*, he would lose his appetite and health. The uniformity of the food, though sufficiently nutritious, in prisons, boarding schools, boarding-houses and hotels, and its influence on appetite and taste and health, some of you may be acquainted with. I am. Your appetite gets lost, your digestion impaired, and your weight and health reduced; if not, perhaps, ill-nutrition shows itself in adiposity. And the baby? Between his natural meals there is a diversity in fat, albumin, and sugar and salts. Furthermore, he takes as little or as much as he pleases. When he is fed artificially, however, the poor thing gets six ounces or eight ounces under the doctor's or nurse's orders—willy-nilly—of the same, gradually more and more unpalatable, because undiversified, mixture or modification or Walker Gordonation. Statistics are a fine method of proving things when carried far enough and blended with intellect, which need not be the rule. For instance, an artificially-fed baby thrives wonderfully on a certain mixture for two or three months. Miraculous result! The same end is obtained in other cases and eulogized in a mercantile firm's circulars. They swear they never lie. Then follows dyspepsia, obesity or diarrhoea, finally, perhaps, scurvy. These are not chronicled by the tradesman, but perhaps by medical observers as the result of that very food. Correctly, it is true. Why? Is it that very food on which others have been doing well? No. The fault may lie in the tedious uniform-

ity of that very food. That is why you may see scurvy even when you feed sometimes a mother's doubtful milk, or more times cow's milk, pasteurized, boiled or sterilized, or proprietary foods, or what not. From your own experience you know all about what is considered correct feeding. Your milk is pure, is nearly germ-free; you know and insist upon a certain percentage of fat in it; it is pasteurized or sterilized just so many minutes; you are imbued with the gospel of top milk, boiled water, lime water, the bottle, the temperature, the number of ounces, week in, week out, month in, month out. Indeed, we allow ourselves to be controlled by mathematics and chemistry. If nature were as pedantic as we are, we should all be shaped over one last, in one crystalline form. There would be no harm could we men all look like Welch or Osler, but the world would be less interesting, after all. I say it is a good thing for a baby to be fed on his mother's milk. It will change at frequent intervals, though in physiological limits. Consequently the pedantic uniformity of laboratory feeding according to ironclad rules is not natural. The baby's digestive organs have to perform physiological functions, and are not governed by the chemistry of the test tube. Even L. Emmet Holt and William H. Park, the famous apostles of close-percentage modification of milk, say that "although desirable in difficult cases, it is not necessary in order to obtain excellent results in the great majority of infants, and a certain adjustment of a healthy infant to its food is usually soon secured." That is what I have been preaching these nearly 50 years. But, then, it did not look as scientific, chemical and ironclad!

Cow's milk, when ready for consumption, is furnished to the baby in different ways. Some of these ways are tolerated by many, some by the vast majority, none in every case. Pure cow's milk is given unchanged and raw, or it is pasteurized or boiled or sterilized, or it is mixed in order to accomplish certain ends. As in most questions of hygiene

and medicine, theory and practical experience must go hand in hand. In the feeding of infants nothing has been more detrimental than the repeated attempts at solving a physiological problem by the sole aid of chemistry.

There are other differences, both biological and chemical. Wassermann and Schütze (*Ges. f. innere Med.*, 1900) injected 10 c. cm. of sterilized cow's milk under the skin of rabbits daily, a fortnight in succession. After that time their blood serum acquired the property of coagulating cow's milk—that is, its proteid—but not that of any other animal. Other animals were treated similarly with goat's milk, with the result that their blood sera would coagulate the albuminate either of goat's milk or of human milk, respectively. In every case the specific coagulating effect was observed in that kind of milk only with which the animal was previously treated.

There are also important chemical differences between the casein of cow's milk and woman's milk.

After all, between the 3½ per cent. of casein contained in cow's milk and the one or two per cent. of casein contained in human milk there are essential biological, physical, chemical, and clinical differences.

Similar facts may be stated in regard to the fat of the two milks.

Fat, that is, cream, is added to cow's milk for two alleged reasons—first, to increase the nutritiousness of the food, and second, to enhance the digestibility of the casein. Now and then, however, you meet with an author—Monti, for instance; Jacobi another, for instance—who considers a high percentage of fat injurious. On the other hand, Schlossmann, quite a rising authority, declares the belief in the injuriousness of fat "antiquated." In our country the several modifications—those of Rotch or of Holt—are very positive, or have been so, in the demands of a high percentage of fat.

I prefer a low percentage of cream in infant-feeding for the following reasons: First, the normal stools of the infant contain unabsorbed fat, no matter whether fed on mother's or on cow's milk. . . . Second, woman's

milk and cow's milk have nearly the same percentage of fat, and the undiluted cow's milk should never have cream added to it. Bunge has 3.8 per cent. for woman's milk, 3.7 for that of the cow.

Experience teaches that the babies thrive best on less fat.

Formula No. 2 of the Nathan Strauss Laboratory, which has been furnished to tens of thousands of babies, reads as follows: Water, 90.11; solids, 9.89. The solids not fat are 7.70; there are 2.19 fat, 5.56 cane-sugar, 0.39 ash, and 1.75 proteids. This is meant for babies from four to eight months old. On that they thrive. And a similar composition I have used these fifty years of private and institutional practice. The first of four formulae supplied in Chicago to very young infants contains fat 1.5, milk sugar, 5, and proteids 0.5. Third, there is a chemical and a physical difference between the fat of the two milks. Woman's milk has more oleic acid than cow's milk. Woman's milk contains its fat in a finer emulsion, and holds from two to four times as many fat globules as are contained in equally fat cow's milk (Schlossmann). This condition makes it more digestible. It is assumed, and reasonably so, that the fine fat globules are absorbed directly through the epithelia of the intestinal villi. Moreover, cow's-milk fat before it is used undergoes changes. When taken after slow rising it is apt to be acidulated; when sterilized and centrifuged it is changed chemically and physically; when frozen it separates from the milk and does not mix again.

The modern experience in infant-feeding with buttermilk seems to upset all the fine-spun theories of the laboratories. It appears to be proven by the results of Dutch peasants and many first-class European clinics that buttermilk—which, indeed, cannot be claimed to be like woman's milk, either physically or chemically—is an excellent nutriment in acute and chronic gastroenteritis of the young, in grave dyspepsias, in the chronic dyspepsias (for instance, of syphilis), and also in their healthy condition. Its percentage of sugar is only 2.82 to 3.5, of albumin 2.5 to 2.7, of fat only 0.5 to 1.

Still, the infants thrive. The literature of the last few years, which has become quite extensive, and the names, many quite illustrious, of the sponsors of the buttermilk feeding prove it. They merely confirm the old experience of the Dutch peasant population.

Further Comparison. The cow's milk mixture which is to be administered to infants requires

sugar, which makes it more palatable and less constipating, and restores, to a certain limited extent, the approximate composition of woman's milk. The latter contains 6 or 7 per cent. of sugar, cow's milk only 3 or 4 per cent. Imagine your cow's mixture or dilution contains 50 per cent of milk; so there is only $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of sugar in it. This sugar is milk sugar. Now, should milk sugar or cane sugar be added?

Breast milk plunges into the infant stomach directly unchanged and sterile; in the cities, cow's milk has to wait from one to twenty-four hours before it reaches the consumer. Its milk sugar begins to be changed into lactic acid immediately after milking. This lactic acid, together with the rennet of the stomach and the acids formed out of the fat of the milk, are the final causes of curdling. If you meet with a milk that is no longer alkaline—indeed, some milks are acidulated in the udder, and many more are amphoteric, that is, neutral—the decomposition of the milk is very rapid. It is true not all the sugar contained in cow's milk sent into the stomach is changed into lactic acid. Usually this change stops when one-sixth or one-quarter of the milk sugar has been so changed. Only when an alkali is present in the stomach and neutralizes the lactic acid more of the latter is formed. Thus, indeed, the amount of lactic acid which is produced depends on the accident of an alkali being present or absent. That is why the routine use of sodic carbonate or bicarbonate may become a dangerous procedure. This fact appears to prove that a small amount of lactic acid suffices for the demands of normal digestion. That becomes still more apparent when we learn that some of the milk sugar passes through the in-

testinal tract undigested. Blauberger (*Studien über Säuglingsfäces*, p. 55) found the dried feces of the nursing to contain from 0.22 to 0.59 per cent of milk sugar. This happens even to woman's milk sugar. And Escherich found that peptones which form in milk while in the intestines previous to normal absorption are destroyed by acid fermentation, and concludes that for that reason alone another carbohydrate (*i. e.*, starchy food or cane sugar) should take the place of milk sugar in order to avoid an excess of lactic acid. Moreover, Dr. Helen Baldwin has published (*Journal of Experimental Medicine*, Vol. V) investigations which prove the formation of oxalic acid as the result of intestinal fermentation. Thus, surely, it seems to be easier to give too much milk sugar than too little, and it appears that the careful measuring and weighing of milk sugar are of doubtful value, even though you know, or believe you know, that the milk sugar of the market and the milk sugar of woman's milk are identical, which they are not. All this refers to cow's milk that is obtained and utilized when still fresh. When it reaches the baby's stomach ten or twenty-four hours' old, with quantities of lactic acid formed, Escherich's warning is still more urgent. . . .

What I conclude from all this is that every cow's milk mixture contains a sufficient amount of milk sugar for the needs of digestion, and that no milk sugar, but some other sugar should be added, *viz.*, cane sugar, which, in its chemical atoms, is identical with milk sugar, but is not changed into lactic acid. Indeed, it counteracts the rapid conversion of milk sugar into lactic acid—is rather a preserver of milk in its purity. You know that cane sugar is employed by the trades for the purpose of preserving foods. Amongst them is condensed milk, which, though reprehensible as a food when pure cow's milk can be obtained, is an indispensable makeshift in the service of the hundreds of thousands of our large cities to whom pure milk is a *terra incognita*. . . .

Cane sugar is not changed to an acid in the intestinal canal. It is easily ab-

sorbed, and is not detrimental. It is, according to Pavy, partly inverted into grape sugar and partly absorbed directly. Grape sugar and dextrine are absorbed equally. Only in the sick the absorption of sugar is slow. Particularly in the diseases of the alimentary canal, in which there is increased fermentation in the mouth, stomach, and intestines, the ingested quantity of sugar should be diminished and diluted. . . .

The large per cent of casein in cow's milk compared with that contained in human milk—without regard to their physical, chemical, and physiological differences—necessitated the dilution of cow's milk when required for infant-feeding. The material for dilution was water, the principal constituent of everything organic. Its rôle in the anatomy of the human body has been the subject of a thousand researches.

Fehling, Camerer, and Söldner have studied the percentage of water in the composition of the fetal and infant tissues. It is ninety-four in the fetus of three months; after the sixth fetal month and at birth it is sixty-nine to sixty-six, and in the adult only fifty-eight. More than one-half of this belongs to the muscles, 27 per cent. to the bones, and only 10 per cent. to the fat of the body. So the tissues of the newly born contain 10 per cent. more water than those of advanced years. Immediately after birth the excreting functions of the lungs, skin, and kidney, also the intestines, display a new activity. Unless a sufficient amount of water is furnished to the newly born the tissues lose their physiological equilibrium and their functions are impaired. That a baby had no new supply of water the first day or days of its life was the rule until its rights and necessities were recognized in our more thoughtful modern era. The time when the loss of 10 or 20 per cent. of the weight of a newly-born infant was considered normal is well remembered even by those of you who are quite young. Now if there be no milk, water is the least you can give. But even if the young mother *has* milk, that milk is colostrum, which contains from 3 to 5 per cent. of nitrogenous

substance—more than four times the percentage contained in the milk of the second week and ever afterwards. That is why natural baby food is better digested with than without additional water. The danger is particularly great in the milks of mothers that have been prematurely confined, for in their milk the percentage of proteids is disproportionately still higher. First, kind nature expels them before they are matured; then she supplies them providentially with indigestible food, which should be corrected by ample dilution.

The dilution of cow's milk for the newly born should be from four or six to one, and for a baby of six months one to one. That is required to make milk digestible. There are more reasons, however, for a high degree of dilution. Our babies are not given enough water. Breast and the bottle, as mostly prepared, contain food, not water. When babies are hungry they cry; when they are thirsty they speak the same language. In either case they are given food, not drink. That is why babies should frequently be offered pure spring or boiled water in some shape or other, and it is easiest to add it to their food. The objection made to this plan is that it is said to lead to dilatation of the stomach. That objection has been constructed at the writing desk. . . .

Diluents in Artificial Feeding.

What I have said of the coagulability of cow's casein and its general difference from the casein of human milk, of the dissimilar character of the fat contained in the two milks, of the dangers to digestion resulting from the excess of lactic acid in the intestine, and from the advice given by Escherich and others to replace milk sugar by some other carbohydrate, makes the substitution of a diluent more efficient than mere water advisable. That diluent should render an additional service, that is, it should be of such a nature as to prevent the coagulation in hard lumps of the casein of the cow's milk when introduced into the baby's stomach. Normally, the coagulum of mother's milk is soft and flaky; that of cow's milk hard and firm.

Means should be found to avoid the latter occurrence, but such means as will be agreeable to every infant stomach. . . .

My experience taught me the digestibility of small quantities of cereals. I was pushed aside until thirty-five years ago Schiffer, Korowin, and Zweifel established beyond doubt, with the aid of simple experimentation, the diastatic function of the salivary glands even in the newly born. Was this teaching accepted and utilized in the practice of medicine? Oh, no! It was much simpler to take no notice of it. Then, some twenty-five years later, a great pediatricist, Heubner, came to the conclusion that the gut of the baby when diseased did better with flour than without it. Flour of rice and of oats was extolled for curative purposes, but not yet for nutrition. Only gradually cereal decoctions were added to cow's milk in place of water, and lo and behold, we are at present in a new epoch of teaching where every tyro in pediatry discovers all by and through and for himself the new gospel of the cereals!

Old men in the profession—if there be any old men in the profession, which I sometimes deny—may remember that I always recommended cereals, mainly oatmeal or barley, the raw, and not the dextrinized material, in such a proportion that about a tablespoonful of the powder was boiled with a little table salt in a quart of water one-half hour, more or less, down to a pint, this decoction to be used in certain proportions with the sugared and salted cow's milk, the whole to be boiled or sterilized before using. I selected these particular cereals for the reason that they included enough iron and other salts, and vegetable albumin, and as *little* starch as any cereals or farinacea are known to contain.

The digestibility of cereals by the infant, though the pancreas may not have obtained its complete function, is enhanced by a peculiar condition of the gut of the baby. It is relatively longer and has more absorbent villi of the mucous membrane. Indeed, the lymph vessels all over the infant system are more numerous and are larger.

Barley and oatmeal have an almost equal chemical composition; the latter has a greater tendency to loosen the bowels. That is why, when there is a tendency to diarrhea, the barley is preferable; when constipation, oatmeal. The whole barleycorn, ground for the purpose, should be used for small children, because the proteid is contained near the husk, moreover on account of its percentage of iron.

Artificial feeding requires the addition of table salt (sodium chloride). According to Voit's old teaching, it improves metabolism by increasing the secretion of the kidneys. Of greater importance, however, is the fact that the chloride of sodium of the food is the source of the formation of hydrochloric acid of the gastric juice. . . .

In vegetables, cereals included, potassium predominates. Potassium is found in the blood as a phosphate, sodium as a chloride. They interchange so as to form sodium phosphate and potassium chloride. Both are quietly eliminated through the kidneys. The potassium being present in overwhelming quantities, too much sodium chloride is eliminated, and it must be replaced by feeding.

In regard to the quantity of food, we begin to appreciate the fact that our babies, like ourselves, eat too much. We need not go the whole length of Chittenden's practice, but still be impressed with the truth of his teaching—that the minimum demand of food should be ascertained, particularly for those babies who are limited to the less digestible cow's casein. Besides, the intervals between the meals should not be too short. That of two hours is too short for even the smallest baby. Twenty-five years ago I emptied a great many infant stomachs, and never found one quite empty two hours after a meal even when it consisted of mother's milk. Cow's milk should have at least half an hour more even in the first two months.

Another question is raised in regard to the strength—the gradual increase of solids in an infant food. . . .

My custom has been to gradually in-

crease the strength of the milk mixture employed in infant-feeding. The newly born is given 20 or 25 per cent. of milk in a thin barley or oatmeal water; the infant of six months equal parts. In the interval a gradual increase of milk takes place. Whenever there is an intestinal disorder—vomiting or passing of curd—the milk is temporarily diminished. Observation and common sense are both more instructive and beneficial than mathematical rules. The baby is no crystal, but an organism.

If raw milk could always be had unadulterated, fresh, and untainted, and as often as it was wanted, it would require no boiling. Heating might even be contraindicated unless great care be taken, for high temperatures, beyond destroying dangerous microbes, may injure those required for normal digestion.

But moderate boiling or sterilization is by no means always a positive protection. Aerobic bacteria, the hay or potato bacilli, with their resistant spores, require sterilization of many hours before they are destroyed. . . .

But, sterilization prolonged until it kills streptococci and bacilli first kills the milk as a nutrient. There is no more frequent cause of infantile scurvy than this prolonged sterilization, of which mothers and nurses are so proud. . . .

But, after all, what you have been advised in former lectures remains true in the large majority of cases. Pasteurization at 150° F., short boiling, or short sterilization will mostly protect against the microbes of tuberculosis, diphtheria, cholera, and typhoid fever. . . .

The other thing to be remembered is what you have been taught this winter and what you have promoted in your efforts to obtain pure milk. You know it all. Proper feeding and stabling, and clean skins of cows and men, clean pails and bottles and nipples—there is the main part of the salvation of the bottle-fed baby. "*Ceterum censeo*," in the words of old Cato. *The own mother belongs to the baby and the baby to the own mother.*

CHARITIES

AND The Commons

A WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PHILANTHROPY AND SOCIAL ADVANCE

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Class Matter

**Chicago's
New School
Buildings.** Noteworthy advances in public school construction and equipment are under way in Chicago. Chicago conditions, fortunately, make it possible to limit the height ordinarily to three stories. Absence of very high buildings surrounding school sites, together with land at prices not altogether prohibitive, permit of a degree of open space. To take the utmost advantage of these excellent light conditions, however, the Chicago school, as exemplified in six new buildings, is so constructed that the class rooms have at least 25 per cent more glass than is customary or has until now been the case in Chicago. The walls do not exist as walls, but are more in the nature of piers, the spaces between being filled entirely with glass. In fact, so far as the walls are concerned, these modern places for the child to develop are as flooded with sunshine as the greenhouse for growing flowers. If ever there is too

much light it is a simple matter to pull down a shade.

A distinctive feature is the so-called "tower" system for the toilet arrangements. Instead of having them entirely in the basement, this plan provides for four units arranged vertically, one in the basement, and one each on the three floors above, the "tower" for boys being at one end of the building, and that for girls at the other. The old method of herding each sex into one large basement toilet room cannot fail to militate against home taught modesty between members of the same sex. The four units in the "tower" system keep different ages by themselves. The class rooms on each floor are usually filled by children within a year or two of the same age. Inasmuch as each floor, therefore, has its own toilet rooms, it is not necessary to mix the older boys with the younger boys, or the older girls with the younger girls. Another great advantage lies in the fact that girls at certain periods of development are not subjected to the physical harm of too much stair climbing. More careful supervision and control of the toilets may be had also. There was at first some objection to the "tower" arrangement of toilet facilities on the score of expense. A recently passed city ordinance, however, requiring porcelain closets and better plumbing, and that basement toilets be heated in cold weather, has evened up to a considerable degree the expense between the "tower" and the old basement plan, so that the former costs but \$1,500

more than the latter to install in a twenty-six room school.

Larger stages in the assembly halls are provided, so that an entire class engaged in physical exercises may be accommodated. A staircase connects the stage with the basement. This allows processions of pupils to dress in the basement and appear upon the stage without passing through the audience.

The wainscoting throughout the buildings are of brick instead of burlap, thus insuring greater permanence and cleanliness. The corridor floors are now made of asphalt, in place of wood or concrete. Heretofore the asphalt has been used only on the stairs and the stair landings.

Permanent equipment and especially large rooms are provided for manual training and domestic science, and in the basement of each school there is a fine bathroom.

This advance in school building construction in Chicago is in line with other services which Dwight H. Perkins, the architect of the Board of Education, has rendered the progressive movements of the city. Not the least of these was his widely appreciated work as a member of the Special Park Commission in preparing the admirable report of that body upon the proposed magnificent outer belt forest park for Chicago.

**Another
Washington
Alley to Go.**

At the outset of the housing campaign in Washington this last year, three definite lines of advance seemed worth working for and working for hard. The first of these was the bill for the condemnation of insanitary buildings, which had met defeat for nine years, to get this permanently planted in the statutes as an expression of the insistence of the community, upon more decent standards of living. The bill became law last month.

A second step lay in bringing public opinion to bear that would secure the opening of blind alleys into minor streets, under provisions of laws already enacted. A special commission was appointed in March to take hold of this matter and immediately one of the worst alleys described by Mr. Weller in his report as published in our special number, was

fixed upon as a beginning. A second has now been marked for opening and public opinion is aroused to that point that we have the editor of a Washington paper declaring for the opening of all the three hundred alleys which parallel the broad avenues with hidden runways of neglect and disease.

A third step lay, it seemed, in the appointment of a general housing commission to make a thorough investigation of conditions and to draw up such standards of urban environment as would make the National Capital in truth a model city. To gauge the situation, President Roosevelt secured the services of James B. Reynolds whose work was interrupted before the winter was over, to make the investigation of health conditions in the stock yards of Chicago. Mr. Reynolds's Washington report will be awaited with interest in its bearing upon this third possible line of advance.

The *Washington Times* published this editorial:

The agitation over the alley life of Washington is bearing good fruit. One of the worst by-ways of Capital life has already been cleared—what is known as the O street alley, between N and O, Fourth and Fifth streets northwest. Now another has been fixed upon—Snow's court, in the square bounded by Twenty-fourth, Twenty-fifth, I and K streets northwest.

These two nests secluded in a life of an extremely low standard about 500 persons. They have required watchfulness on the part of the police out of all proportion to their population. Their people have been shut out from association and contact with the higher life led by their neighbors as effectively as though they were ten miles apart.

Snow's court has an entrance so circuitous that the average passerby did not know of its existence and the curious would have had difficulty in finding it. Three or four rows of houses in it contaminated their tenants and spread contagion. Frame buildings in that condition are not unusual, but one of these was brick and presented to the health office and workers in practical charity a problem of great difficulty. Not all the disadvantages of the old life will be obviated by the opening of the court into a minor street, but many of them will be eliminated and the remainder can then be solved with less difficulty.

So, then, the city has made a start. It is a mighty late start and it is only a start at best. But it is something. It ought to encourage the authorities to continue their commission—consisting of Major Sylvester, Secretary Wilson, of the Board of Charities,

and Surveyor Richards—until all the 298 alleys have been opened. Some of them, like Nolan's court, between N, O, First and Half streets southwest, offer particularly good opportunities. That alley is shut in by two tracts of ground, one of them open and ready for donation, and the other closed by a row of cheap wooden shacks. It ought to be opened if it costs the city \$100,000. But when it is likely to cost the city less than \$1,000 it is criminal to allow the segregation of its 200 or 300 inhabitants another month.

Washington has 20,000 citizens shut in by-ways not unlike the O street alley, Snow's court, and Nolan's court. We are bringing into association with decent standards only about 500 of those 20,000. We cannot afford to stop with that.

Work for the Blind in Maine.

Three years ago a company of nine blind men and women met in Portland for the purpose of organizing a society to work for the betterment of the adult blind. As a result, the first work of the Maine Association for the Blind looked toward the establishment of a manual training school. A trustee was appointed to receive and hold funds secured for this purpose. Several hundred dollars have already been subscribed, raised chiefly through lectures and concerts. In 1904 a bill was presented to the legislature asking for an appropriation. This bill failed to pass the senate, but resulted in arousing public interest. The following June an organization was effected which now numbers more than two hundred members, and which will support a similar measure before the legislature next winter. The creation of such an institution for teaching trades to the adult blind is but a part of the general practical program of the organization.

Lowell's Anti- Tuberculosis Association.

In January, 1906, the Lowell Anti-Tuberculosis Association was organized for the purpose of educating public opinion concerning the cause and the prevention of tuberculosis, especially in relation to the conditions existing in Lowell. What has been accomplished in the succeeding months makes a stirring showing.

A public exhibition was held in March with an attendance of more than ten thousand. Lectures were given in French, Greek, Polish and Portuguese at meetings especially provided for each

nationality. Literature was distributed freely, and addresses were made by Professor William T. Councilman of Harvard, Professor William T. Sedgwick of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Dr. George S. C. Badger of the Massachusetts General Hospital, and A. M. Wilson, secretary of the Boston Association. Tuberculosis, its cause, prevention and cure; home treatment of tuberculosis; sanitation and hygiene in the home, school and workshop; and the duties of the employer and the employe were set forth. The District Society of the Massachusetts Medical Society appointed a committee on tuberculosis, and the lay press as well as the various manufacturing and industrial concerns assisted in giving the work publicity and encouragement. The Associated Charities established a district nursing branch, and the Board of Health inaugurated a systematic inspection of over-crowded districts. Tuberculosis has been placed upon the list of diseases requiring notification to the Health Department, and infected premises are to be fumigated. School janitors have been placed under the control of the school committee instead of under the superintendent of public buildings as heretofore. A more regular and frequent washing of floors of school rooms is to be observed and the thorough disinfection of all school buildings carried out during the summer and winter recesses. In May, 1906, F. F. Ayer, of New York City, the generous benefactor of the Lowell General Hospital, added forty-one acres to that hospital's site and donated a sum of money sufficient to erect shacks and establish a sanatorium. The buildings, ready for occupancy this month, have a capacity for thirty patients. Any case thought capable of improvement will be admitted, and a special fund has been provided to maintain those patients unable to pay. The Young Women's Guild is to erect a shack for tuberculous children, and the different benevolent associations and industrial insurance societies are offered privileges for locating shacks on these grounds for their members.

The Anti-Tuberculosis Society is now taking a census of Lowell with the view of organizing the city into districts each

under a chairman and working committee who shall have the care of all tuberculous persons within their district and provide instruction, nursing or hospital treatment for each, if the attending physician wishes such assistance. The executive secretary of the association is Dr. Thomas F. Harrington.

**The Social
Workers'
Club of
Philadelphia.**

For several years the wisdom of forming some sort of a club among the social workers of Philadelphia had been discussed. In May, 1905, invitations were sent to a group of people, representing all sorts of social and philanthropic organizations, inviting them to express their opinions and to attend a meeting at the University of Pennsylvania. It was the general understanding of those who became charter members of the new club that its purpose was to bring about wider acquaintance and co-operation between the different groups of people in the city who had been working almost entirely without contact with each other. The club was fortunate enough, at the very outset, through the co-operation of the Young Friends' Association, to secure the free use of a centrally located hall and likewise to secure at a low price a dinner in the same building. The club began the year with a membership of perhaps forty; it closed the year in May, 1906, with a membership of one hundred or over, and with every evidence of an increased interest on the part of the members.

The plan of the club has been to have an informal dinner followed by opportunity for general conversation and by a lecture from some person prominent in social work. During the year, the following lecturers have been heard:

The opening meeting was devoted to the plans and purposes of the organization; a statement being made by Professor S. M. Lindsay, of the University of Pennsylvania, while brief reports upon the Portland meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction were made by Miss M. E. Richmond and George Vaux, Jr. Miss Jean Hamilton addressed the club upon *The Work of the League of Women Workers*; F. H. Nibecker on *The Work of Caring for Juvenile Delinquents*, as illustrated by the House of Refuge at Glen Mills; Edward E. Allen, superintendent of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, discussed the work of caring for the blind in Pennsylvania; Dr. William H. Allen, of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor of New York city told of the opportunities for social service as illustrated by the career of Robert M. Hartley; and Dr. Edward T. Devine spoke of the present opportunities for social service, curiously enough on the day of the San Francisco disaster. The last speaker of the year was Frank Tucker who told of the work of the Provident Loan Society of New York.

To all appearances the club starts the second year under the most favorable auspices and with every indication of an increased membership. It has been fortunate enough to avoid all controversies and to enroll those representing every shade of religious thought and all forms of social activity. The officers for the ensuing year are: George Vaux, Jr., member of the board of directors of the House of Refuge, president; Max Herzberg, president of the United Hebrew Charities, treasurer; and Miss Ethel Ramsey, special agent Department of Health and Public Charities, secretary.

**The Boston
Monday
Evening Club.**

The Boston Monday Evening Club closed the most successful season of its history by taking its annual outing on Children's Island, Salem harbor. The year has been marked by a great increase in attendance at the monthly meeting accounted for in part by the gain of eighty-three new members and more particularly because the program committee presented at each successive meeting a subject and list of speakers that few could afford to miss.

The club has outgrown its old home in the parlors of Trinity church and in the future will meet in the rooms of the Twentieth Century Club where its surroundings will be found particularly congenial.

The program for the year would seem to have been pretty carefully worked out at the beginning to secure the sequence of subjects indicated in the three following:

Social Work and the Physician, Some Experience with the Church in Helping Needy Families, Charity and the Bench and Bar.

Thus were the law, ministry and medicine shown in their relation to charity work.

Perhaps it was the revolutionary character of the social service department of the Massachusetts General Hospital so ably presented by Dr. Richard C. Cabot in an address which appeared afterwards in the columns of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, that made the evening devoted to the physicians of so much the greatest interest—so much indeed that a later meeting was wholly given over to a discussion of Dr. Cabot's paper.

In December the club met in the "Town Room," the new laboratory of civic betterment conceived and given to the public by Joseph Lee.

Good fellowship among workers in the field of charity is greatly promoted by the supper which precedes the formal meeting of the club.

A. M. W.

Notes

Newark's Educational Alliance.—The Hebrew Educational Alliance of Newark, N. J., has purchased property at 54-60 Stirling street in that city and will establish a day nursery, neighborhood house, a free library and a general meeting place for all Hebrew charities. Industrial classes for men and women will be formed when accommodations can be provided in the new building.

Industrial Farm in Utah.—Through a movement started by the State Federation of Women's Clubs of Utah, 800 acres of land have been secured for an industrial farm for boys. The place is to be known as Canyon Crest Ranch and the association as Canyon Crest Association. The property is valued at \$10,000.

It is not the purpose of the association to supplant the work of the regular industrial schools, but rather to furnish a permanent home for friendless children. The cottage system will be adopted.

Mrs. Hugh Park is president, Samuel M. Barlow secretary, and T. G. Webber treasurer, all of Salt Lake.

Nurses' Training School in Watertown.—A training school for nurses will soon be opened in Watertown, N. Y., in connection with St. Joachim's Hospital. The school will be under the jurisdiction of the University of the State of New York and will offer a general hospital course including an obstetrical training. Miss M. H. McManus, a graduate of St. Vincent's, will be in charge of the school.

The Association of Working Girls' Societies.—The Association of Working Girls' Societies, New York City, wishes to secure the co-operation of other societies so that together they may rent the large ground floor at 209 East 23rd street, which will be fitted up as a gymnasium and basket ball room. The room can also be used in the morning as a kindergarten, or for afternoon clubs or classes. By such co-operation a very large space (25 x 80 feet) can be secured at a very moderate price. Apply to Mrs. A. H. Kellogg, Treasurer Association of Working Girls' Societies, 329 West 75th street.

Modern Tenements in St. Louis.—A building permit has been granted to James H. Bright and Sons of St. Louis for erecting a thirty-two apartment tenement. According to newspaper reports, the apartments will contain two and four rooms each, with sanitary plumbing and every precaution against fire. Baths will be installed in each apartment and particular attention will be paid to lighting and ventilation. The building will be three stories in height and will contain seventy-eight rooms. The cost is estimated at \$35,000.

Superintendent for Maryland School for Blind.—George C. Morrison, for two years past superintendent of the Maryland School for the Blind in Baltimore, resigned his position May 1. John F. Bledsoe, the present assistant superintendent, has been appointed in his place. Mr. Bledsoe has been principal of the Maryland School for the Colored Blind and Deaf and previously taught for five years in the Alabama School for the Deaf at Talladega, Ala.

Pittsburg Bath Houses.—The select council of Pittsburg has appropriated \$83,000 for public bath houses. Plans for seven new houses are contemplated—four of them to be located on the South Side from the twenty-fourth ward to the West End.

Pittsburg's New Playgrounds Association.—During the summer the philanthropic work among the school children of Pittsburg will be carried on by a regularly incorporated organization composed of those who have heretofore been in charge of the work of conducting the vacation schools, playgrounds and recreation parks. An application has been filed for a charter for the Pittsburg Playgrounds Association.

Minneapolis' New Playgrounds.—The recommendation of Park Superintendent Wirth of Minneapolis for two new public playgrounds has been adopted. One is to be located in Riverside Park, South Minneapolis, and the other in Logan Park, in the northeastern section of the city. The grounds will be fitted out with swings, horizontal bars and all the paraphernalia of the playground as equipped in other cities.

To Fight Tuberculosis in North Carolina.—Following a recent meeting of the North Carolina State Board of Health and the State Medical Society, the North Carolina Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis was organized. Dr. M. L. Stevens of Asheville is president, and Dr. B. K. Hayes of Oxford, secretary. Meetings will be held annually in connection with the State Medical Society.

Birmingham's United Charities.—At a recent meeting of the United Charities of Birmingham, Ala., the following officers were elected for the ensuing year: President, Mrs. E. M. Owen; vice-president, Mrs. E. H. Lopez; secretary and treasurer, Mrs. Edgar L. Mitchell; trustees, Mrs. W. J. Long, Mrs. J. C. Houston, Mrs. W. L. Rush, Mrs. Sam Stein, Mrs. Sam Erlick, and Mrs. Thomas T. Huey.

The New York School of Philanthropy

The enrolment for the school year 1906-7 has begun and there are a number of applications on file for scholarships.

Many of the students of the class of '06 went directly from the school to positions of more or less importance. There were several requests for graduates for positions which had to go unfilled.

The demand seems greatest for people to fill such positions as those of Charity Organization Society Secretary, Club Worker, and Financial Secretary. It seems reasonable to say that any bright young man or woman with the requisite natural qualifications, good academic preparation and one year's hard study and field work with the school, is certain of an opportunity for a career at very reasonable compensation.

For enrolment blanks, further particulars, etc., address the Director.

EDWARD T. DEVINE,
105 E. 22nd St.,
New York.

HOUSES SUPPLYING CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS

To secure a place in this Directory the name of a Supply House must be submitted by an Institution purchasing from it, and known to the publishers of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS. Published every Saturday.

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Employment Exchange.

Address all communications to Miss Helen M. Kelsey, Editor Employment Exchange Department of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, Room 635, 156 Fifth Avenue. Kindly enclose postage if a reply is desired.

The advertisements of the Employment Exchange Department will be discontinued for a few weeks. Meantime the work of the Department goes on as usual.

Both employers and candidates are invited to make their needs known, so that at the opening of the busy season (about August 1st) the Editor may be in a position to act promptly.

State Charities Aid Association

I. Inspection and Improvement of Public Institutions

The first object of the association is to improve the condition of public charitable institutions in the state of New York. It has 1,000 volunteer visitors in fifty different counties. Through these and through its office staff it visits state hospitals for the insane, state charitable institutions, county, city and town almshouses and public hospitals. The number of inmates of such institutions exceeds 47,000, and they cost the public over \$8,000,000 a year. This voluntary co-operation of private citizens with public officials is a work of practical patriotism and has greatly improved the administration of state, county and municipal charities.

II. Charity Legislation

Besides framing and securing the passage of needed legislation, the association examine carefully all bills relating to charitable matters (about 100 each year), and takes such action as may be advisable to secure their passage, amendment or defeat. Its independence of official appointment and of the public treasury gives it a peculiarly favorable position for legislative work.

III. Placing Destitute Children in Families

Orphans, foundlings and permanently deserted children are received from public officials and from institutions in which they are supported by public funds, and are placed in carefully selected permanent free homes usually in the country. Many of them are legally adopted. Five hundred and fifty-six children, received since August, 1898; from many different counties, have been placed in free family homes in all parts of this state, and in several other states.

IV. Providing Situations for Mothers with Babies

Homeless mothers with infants or small children received from public maternity hospitals, infant and foundling asylums, and charitable societies, are provided with situations in the country, keeping their children; 590 situations were provided last year; nine children died while with their mothers in situations (death-rate a little over one per cent); in institutions for children of this age the death-rate is very high. The average cost of each mother and baby under our care last year was \$3.72.

V. Boarding Motherless Infants in Families

A joint committee of this Association and the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor receives foundlings, abandoned and other motherless babies from the Department of Public Charities, and places them in carefully selected suburban families to board until they are strong enough to be placed in permanent free homes for adoption; the mortality among the foundlings has thus been reduced to eleven per cent; 327 babies were under care last year. In addition to what the city pays towards the board of the children, the annual cost of the work to the Joint Committee is \$5,000.00.

Total number of children under the supervision of the Association, October 1, 1905, 1,220. If supported in institutions, they would cost the public \$122,000 per year.

ALL BRANCHES OF THE ASSOCIATION'S WORK ARE SUPPORTED BY VOLUNTARY CONTRIBUTIONS

The total expenses are \$30,000 per year. Contributions of any amount will be gratefully received. Checks should be made payable to Charles S. Fairchild, treasurer, Room 702, No. 105 East Twenty-second street. Special contributions for Nos. III, IV or V, (see above) should be so designated. Clothing for women and children, especially babies, is also desired.

105 EAST TWENTY-SECOND STREET, NEW YORK

Please mention CHARITIES AND THE COMMON when writing to advertisers.

TO PHILANTHROPIC WORKERS:

WHEN you find children living in a state of neglect and it becomes your aim to uplift the family through the children, we ask that you bear in mind that you have at command the medium of the day and evening industrial schools of the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, where the children receive not only an elementary education of mind and hand, but also a moral uplift and an appreciation of the importance of regularity and the value of steady work as well as a knowledge of a higher standard of living. For the children who do not receive proper nourishment at home, hot dinners are provided in the schools, and the parents in times of sickness or adversity are advised and materially assisted by the teachers, acting as settlement workers and tactful household visitors. More than 10,000 children attended these industrial schools during the year, including 4,000 in the kindergartens; 269 crippled children and fifty-one mentally defective children in special classes, and 140 truant boys in handicrafts.

ORPHANS and abandoned children should be placed out in good, carefully selected family homes in the country. This is the most satisfactory work accomplished by the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY. It is strikingly successful in results, for the orphan or abandoned child is transplanted from the worst environment to the best. During the last year 668 children were placed in families for adoption.

HOMELESS AND WAYWARD BOYS are given a period of probation at our Brace Farm School before homes on farms are sought for them. During the year 701 boys were trained and placed in families.

WILLFUL AND DISOBEDIENT GIRLS are given a training in housework at our Elizabeth Home, No. 307 East Twelfth Street. Last year 235 girls were trained and placed in situations.

DISPOSSESSED MOTHERS with children are cared for temporarily at our Mothers' Home, No. 311 East Twelfth Street. To 466 helpless mothers and children shelter was given during the year.

WE INVITE your co-operation. The list of industrial schools and temporary homes will be sent on application to the Secretary, Mr. C. L. Brace, at the central office, 105 East Twenty-second Street, and information will be cheerfully given.

TO THE PUBLIC:

CONTRIBUTIONS in aid of this great work will be gratefully received by Mr. A. B. HEPBURN, Treasurer of the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, at 105 East Twenty-second Street. Clothing and shoes are greatly needed, and partly worn articles will prove acceptable, as the garments will be repaired in our sewing classes, and the shoes put in condition by the boys of the cobbling classes. Old magazines, books and toys will also be welcome.

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PUBLICATION COMMITTEE
CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF
THE CITY OF NEW YORK
105 East 22d Street, New York

Entered at the Post Office, New York, N. Y., as Second Class Matter

Committee on Welfare Work, New York. The Civic Federation of New York city has appointed a Committee on Welfare Work to give consideration to improving the working conditions of employes in the city's institutions and the different trades in this vicinity. Its appointment was authorized at the annual dinner of the Civic Federation when Charles A. Moore, H. H. Vreeland, former Commissioner William McAdoo, Homer Folks and Charles P. Neill, United States Commissioner of Labor, were among its urgent advocates. The addresses of labor leaders at that dinner indicated that the working conditions of the stationary firemen, metal polishers, bakers, teamsters, and city employes such as the policemen and letter carriers especially require correction.

This general Welfare Committee of Sixty will divide its work among sub-committees in the different trades.

The metal polishers' sub-committee held its first meeting recently when statistics showing the death rate from tuberculosis in that trade were presented. These statistics demonstrated the need of provision for ventilating devices in the work places of this craft.

The Welfare Committee is composed of the following:

Dr. Thomas R. Slicer, pastor All Souls' Church;

B. J. Greenhut, treasurer Siegel-Cooper Co.; Timothy Healy, president International Brotherhood of Stationary Firemen;

August Belmont, Jr., of August Belmont & Co.;

W. C. LeGendre, banker;

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Homer Folks, president New York City Visiting Committee, State Charities Aid Association;

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Andrew Helthaler, Metal Polishers' Union; John Bancroft Devins, editor New York

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John S. Huyler, president The Huyler Candy Co.;

Michael A. Fitzgerald, Lettercarriers' Association;

Felix M. Warburg, of Kuhn, Loeb & Co.;

Lawrence F. Abbott, editorial staff, *The Outlook*;

B. A. Larger, secretary National Garment Workers;

J. P. Larrimer, Bridge and Structural Iron Workers;

David Blaustein, Educational Alliance;

H. N. Covell, Lidgerwood Manufacturing Co.;

James Beggs, Musicians' Union;

Dr. Samuel J. Barrows, corresponding secretary of the New York Prison Association;

John C. Freund, editor *Music Trades*;

Charles Delaney, Granite Cutters;

Albert Britt.

Hamilton Holt, editor *The Independent*;

William Fyfe, Amalgamated Carpenters;

Herbert N. Casson, editor *Munsey's Magazine*;

Henry C. Hunter, commissioner, New York Trades Association;

O. R. Young, editor, *International Steam Engineer*;

Hayne Davis, lawyer;

Thomas F. McCarthy, president New York Truck Owners' Association;

J. W. Parker, Poster Artist;

Leslie Graff, secretary Retail Dry Goods Association;

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Robert Thompson, Brotherhood of Carpenters;

Thos. C. T. Crain.

Ernest Stagg Whiton is secretary of the committee.

The Besom of Clean City Day.

The custom of setting apart one day in the early spring as a sort of official "cleaning up day" for the whole city has spread rapidly through the cities of the middle west. Denver, Chicago, Grand Rapids, Kalamazoo, New Orleans, and other places have taken up with the idea enthusiastically, and in many instances the work has been stamped with official recognition through proclamations by the mayor, appointing the day, suggesting lines of effort, and calling for especial endeavors on the part of the street cleaning and other municipal departments.

The results in Denver a year ago attracted widespread attention throughout the country. Mayor Speer's proclamation contained such hints as:

"If your store front, residence, or fence is dingy, order it repainted."

"If your awning is old, torn or faded, get a new one."

"Resolve never to throw papers in the street."

"Ask your milkmen, grocerymen and expressmen to have their wagons painted."

The city itself set a good example by thoroughly cleaning all downtown streets and alleys, painting all of the poles used in its fire and police system, placing new and improved refuse cans at downtown street and alley crossings, and attending to numerous other odd "chores." The citizens became interested to such a degree that their work in behalf of city tidiness, each one looking after his own property and neighborhood, has been well sustained.

The mayor of Chicago, in a proclamation, fixed May 7 as this year's "clean city day." After calling attention to the exceptional amount of litter and refuse which is left after the customary May moving time, he requested householders to gather tin cans and other rubbish at the end of each lot so that the garbage collectors might haul it to the dump. The school principals and teachers were asked to take the school boys to perform similar services in the vacant lots. The superintendent of streets organized his men so that the city was thoroughly covered by collecting wagons. In addition, fifty policemen were appointed to remind householders of the various city regulations concerning the disposition of

waste. Further, two policemen for each ward have been assigned to prevent the littering of streets and alleys and to assist the superintendent of street and alley cleaning in his general plan of keeping the city clean. The policemen will be on this work until September. The intention is to enforce strictly such regulations as those against sweeping sidewalk dirt and scraps into the street.

In addition to the work of the public school in directing the children's clean city work, the social settlements accomplished much toward permanently interesting the children. Under the leadership of Mrs. Esther Falkenstein, of the Armitage Avenue Settlement House, more than 1,000 children from that neighborhood attended a meeting to perfect plans for the work. A lieutenant was appointed for each block, and the children living upon it were told to report to him the work done in clearing up the rubbish in the streets, alleys, vacant lots and back yards. The lieutenant reports in turn to the settlement house. The kitchen garden work is found to go hand in hand with the cleaning up. Mrs. Falkenstein gave seeds and instruction to no less than 500 children this year, and throughout the summer she will visit the various yards.

At Hull House where window boxes were sold at fifteen cents each, a different plan of procedure was used. The experience of last year seemed to indicate that the enthusiasm of one day could not be kept up for the large undertaking of caring for streets and alleys as well as for yards. The back yard is limited enough in its area so that the child can see the results of his work. He feels more responsibility for it. The large organization of over 1,000 children at Hull House last year, for one day's great achievement, gave place this year to a smaller group of about 200, whose attention will be held to their own back yards.

The children throughout the south side have been interested by home gardening exhibits and meetings which have been recently held under the auspices of the Municipal Museum in the Neighborhood Center buildings in the south side small parks.

Keeping the
Children in
School—London
and New York.

The London *Municipal Journal*, in an article based on the report of the executive officer of education of the London County Council, gives some figures and conclusions of significance for New Yorkers. The percentage of the average number of children in attendance in the London schools on the number enrolled was eighty-eight in 1905, an increase of eight-tenth per cent. over the preceding year. The corresponding per cent. for New York is not given in the school report, the percentage recorded there being based on the average number of pupils registered, an entirely different matter. The necessary data for the per cent. corresponding to that of London are given, however, and yield a figure startlingly at variance with the English one, namely, a little less than 74.3 per cent. Considered either as significant of cases of complete non-attendance, "school-sneak jobs" as the holder of one called them recently, mere idleness, and others, or of poor attendance of pupils in the schools, their difference of nearly eighteen per cent. deserves analysis. The County Council report gives also the percentage for other British cities for the year 1903-4, the latest year of published returns:

1903-4.

All England and Wales.....	85.7
Leeds	88.4
Manchester	88.1
Birmingham	87.7
Liverpool	86.7
Bradford	88.0
New York, same year.....	74.9

The wide gap between the figures for New York and the poorest for the English cities shows how much room there is for improvement in the compulsory education system here. When great manufacturing towns like Leeds and Manchester, or a city famous for its poor like Liverpool, can outdo us by from twelve to fourteen per cent. in the matter of keeping their children in the schools, we have definite reason for believing that our system somewhat needs radical improvement; and the falling off of six-tenth per cent. in the percentage in New York from 1904 to 1905, as against a steady improvement in London, con-

firms the belief. Among the reasons given in the London report for the improvement in attendance is this:

An appreciable proportion of the improvement is due to greater co-operation between the teaching staff and the school attendance officers. It is probable that some of the improvement is due to the fact that the maximum penalty under the by-laws is now 20s. instead of 5s. The attendance officers now deal systematically with cases of absence at an early stage, and they are enabled to do this chiefly in consequence of the adoption of what is known as the "slip" system of visitation, and by persuasive means are able in the great majority of cases to secure regularity of attendance.

The item of the greatest significance in this question, however, cannot be compared in the cases of New York and London, for the simple reason that under the present system there are no data for it here. This is the percentage of the number of children enrolled in the schools on the total number of children of school age in the city. For London this per cent. is ninety-seven and three-tenths, an increase of one-tenth per cent. on the figure for 1903-4, following increases of two-tenths per cent, two-tenths per cent. and one and four-tenths per cent. for the preceding years. It would be an optimist who would hazard a guess for a showing in New York which would compare as well, even, as the one for attendance does with that of London. For Philadelphia the enrollment is seventy-five and one-tenth per cent. of the school population. In the lately issued school report of that city are given valuable tables of census returns for children between thirteen and sixteen years—the total number in the city, those enrolled in the schools, and those found employed, with their occupations. Similar returns in New York would certainly help in the immense undertaking of producing from a vast, shifting, and largely alien population a respectably well educated community with American standards. Indeed, until New York has a census that gives definite returns as to the number of school children in the city, we cannot expect the problems of compulsory education to be adequately handled.

The Modern View of St. Louis, of which A. Rosen-
Charities,
The Commons,
Jewish Charity. *that is editor, has made the*
 merging of JEWISH CHARITY, CHARITIES and THE COMMONS the subject of appreciative editorial comment, significant of the attitude of the Jewish people generally toward social work. In the merger he finds recognition of the dictum :

"In faith and hope mankind may disagree,
 But all mankind's concern is charity."

To quote further:

It may be true, as cynics might observe, that the combination was a mere matter of expediency and mutual financial benefit. The mere fact that it was possible to merge three denominational charity journals augurs a kinship of effort and objects that indicates how frail and artificial are the differences in reality between noble and lofty humans striving especially in the relations of benevolent or virtuous activity under all the priest-patented denominational labels that sound so big and mean so little in the last analysis.

The gradual merging of denominational bodies is only a question of time. The tendency is so palpably toward the stripping of the forms from the essentials of religion that ultimately the realization must come to all, as it already has to the thinking man and woman, that the maintenance of denominational barriers is barbarous; that they are proofs that men are not yet fully developed intellectually; that the Messianic period is yet to come.

The little incident of the union of the organs of Jewish, Christian and secular charity into one magazine is a step in a direction to which the lover of man looks with longing hope. It marks a little stone on the highway of progress toward larger common sense.

Notes

Boston Juvenile Court.—Governor Guild of Massachusetts has appointed Harvey H. Baker, of Brookline, justice of the new Boston Juvenile Court. Philip Rubenstein of Roxbury, and Frank Leveroni, of East Boston, are appointed special justices, and Charles W. M. Williams, clerk of the new court. Boston papers, with an interest in racial matters, have pointed out that the group includes "a Protestant, a Hebrew, a Roman Catholic and a negro—calculated to fit every description of child to come before it." What is more important is the general opinion that the appointments were other than political and that the men chosen are of a sort who will carry out the newer spirit which is embodied in the statutes creating the present court.

Reports Asked for.—The California State Library, through its legislative reference department, aims to put at the disposal of the legislature of its state, as well as the administrative and executive officers, such funds of information regarding public affairs as are to be found in print. Writing of the plan, Ernest Bruncken, legislative reference librarian, says: "It is hoped to raise the efficiency and intelligence of the entire public service. In doing so, as large a collection as possible of printed material regarding charitable, correctional, and all other matters of public interest is indispensable. A request is therefore directed to the secretaries and other officers of all charitable and reform associations, to send their reports, bulletins and other publications to the legislative reference bureau, State Library, Sacramento, California. Every such gift will be appreciated, and the givers may rest assured that their publications will not merely find a place on the shelves, but will be usefully employed."

New Brooklyn Hospital.—The new Samaritan Hospital at the corner of Fourth avenue and Seventeenth street, Brooklyn, was recently opened. The hospital contains sixteen rooms with accommodations for twenty-five beds. It is an outgrowth of the Fifteenth Street Dispensary established five years ago by Dr. L. T. Jackson. The trustees are William M. Calder, Charles J. Obermayer, Frederick Bruckbauer, the Rev. Dr. H. A. Tupper, president of the board; H. B. McNair, J. S. Frazee, George W. Baylis and George S. Francis. The Board of Managers consists of Dr. E. T. Jackman, chairman; Dr. A. H. Longstreet, Dr. John C. Medd, Dr. A. F. Erdmann, Walter Orton, Mrs. Mary Wardell, Mrs. L. T. Jackman and Mrs. T. Garvey.

Tuberculosis Dispensaries in Brooklyn.—Two clinics for tuberculosis patients were recently opened in Brooklyn—one, the Brooklyn Dispensary at No. 11 Tillary street and another at South Third street and Bedford avenue under the direction of the Williamsburg Hospital. These dispensaries will report to the Bureau of Charities the names of all patients needing a diet of milk and eggs, and the bureau will undertake to see that such diet is supplied. All Brooklyn physicians have been requested to refer to one or the other of these dispensaries patients unable to employ physicians. If necessary a visiting nurse will be sent to the home.

Employment Exchange.

Address all communications to Miss Helen M. Kelsey, Editor Employment Exchange Department of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, Room 555, 156 Fifth Avenue. Kindly enclose postage if a reply is desired.

WANTED—Young woman of marked executive ability for responsible position as Superintendent in Food Department of a large society; practical knowledge of food, business experience, and interest in economics desired.

WANTED—Visiting nurse for small settlement not far from New York City.

WANTED—Two men of experience in the management of boys' clubs, who are successful in and enthusiastic about this work, to take position in charge of clubs in large cities in the East.

WANTED—General Assistant in settlement in eastern city. Small salary to one who has had slight experience. Young woman who is successful with boys preferred.

A YOUNG woman who has had experience in the institutional work and parish visiting of a city church wishes opportunity to do settlement or club work.

YOUNG woman of experience in settlement work wishes temporary engagement for September or October. Would accept small salary.

YOUNG Jewess who has had charge of the work of a settlement wishes position as Head worker. Would consider an opening in the middle West.

WOMAN of varied experience in social work wishes position of executive nature, if possible to include some literary work.

TEACHER who understands thoroughly methods of instruction in institutions wishes position in the East.

AN opportunity to do part time work in Boston is desired by a young college man who has been Physical Director in a settlement in the West.

SEVERAL young women who have become interested in social work through their college courses in Sociology wish opportunities to enter settlement work. Salary sufficient to cover all expenses necessary.

RECENT graduates in Domestic Science wish opportunities to teach in settlements.

GRADUATE of the Summer School of Philanthropy who has had experience as a teacher wishes to take up social work, preferably with children.

WOMAN intending to do graduate study in New York wishes work with older girls in a recreation center or settlement.

WOMEN of more or less training and experience in settlement work wish openings in New York and other cities.

The New York School of Philanthropy

The enrolment for the school year 1906-7 has begun and there are a number of applications on file for scholarships.

Many of the students of the class of '06 went directly from the school to positions of more or less importance. There were several requests for graduates for positions which had to go unfilled.

The demand seems greatest for people to fill such positions as those of Charity Organization Society Secretary, Club Worker, and Financial Secretary. It seems reasonable to say that any bright young man or woman with the requisite natural qualifications, good academic preparation and one year's hard study and field work with the school, is certain of an opportunity for a career at very reasonable compensation.

For enrolment blanks, further particulars, etc., address the Director.

EDWARD T. DEVINE,
105 E. 22nd St.,
New York.

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To secure a place in this Directory the name of a Supply House must be submitted by an Institution purchasing from it, and known to the publishers of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS. Published every Saturday.

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State Charities Aid Association

I. Inspection and Improvement of Public Institutions

The first object of the association is to improve the condition of public charitable institutions in the state of New York. It has 1,000 volunteer visitors in fifty different counties. Through these and through its office staff it visits state hospitals for the insane, state charitable institutions, county, city and town almshouses and public hospitals. **The number of inmates of such institutions exceeds 47,000, and they cost the public over \$8,000,000 a year.** This voluntary co-operation of private citizens with public officials is a work of practical patriotism and has greatly improved the administration of state, county and municipal charities.

II. Charity Legislation

Besides framing and securing the passage of needed legislation, the association **examine carefully all bills relating to charitable matters** (about 100 each year), and takes such action as may be advisable to secure their passage, amendment or defeat. Its independence of official appointment and of the public treasury gives it a peculiarly favorable position for legislative work.

III. Placing Destitute Children in Families

Orphans, foundlings and permanently deserted children are received from public officials and from institutions in which they are supported by public funds, and are placed in carefully selected permanent free homes usually in the country. Many of them are legally adopted. Five hundred and fifty-six children, received since August, 1898, from many different counties, have been placed in free family homes in all parts of this state, and in several other states.

IV. Providing Situations for Mothers with Babies

Homeless mothers with infants or small children received from public maternity hospitals, infant and foundling asylums, and charitable societies, are provided with situations in the country, keeping their children; 590 situations were provided last year; nine children died while with their mothers in situations (death-rate a little over one per cent); in institutions for children of this age the death-rate is very high. The average cost of each mother and baby under our care last year was \$3.72.

V. Boarding Motherless Infants in Families

A joint committee of this Association and the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor receives foundlings, abandoned and other motherless babies from the Department of Public Charities, and places them in carefully selected suburban families to board until they are strong enough to be placed in permanent free homes for adoption; the mortality among the foundlings has thus been reduced to eleven per cent; 327 babies were under care last year. In addition to what the city pays towards the board of the children, the annual cost of the work to the Joint Committee is \$5,000.00.

Total number of children under the supervision of the Association, October 1, 1905, 1,220. If supported in institutions, they would cost the public \$122,000 per year.

ALL BRANCHES OF THE ASSOCIATION'S WORK ARE SUPPORTED BY VOLUNTARY CONTRIBUTIONS

The total expenses are \$30,000 per year. Contributions of any amount will be gratefully received. Checks should be made payable to Charles S. Fairchild, treasurer, Room 702, No. 105 East Twenty-second street. Special contributions for Nos. III, IV or V, (see above) should be so designated. Clothing for women and children, especially babies, is also desired.

105 EAST TWENTY-SECOND STREET, NEW YORK

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TO PHILANTHROPIC WORKERS:

WHEN you find children living in a state of neglect and it becomes your aim to uplift the family through the children, we ask that you bear in mind that you have at command the medium of the day and evening industrial schools of the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, where the children receive not only an elementary education of mind and hand, but also a moral uplift and an appreciation of the importance of regularity and the value of steady work as well as a knowledge of a higher standard of living. For the children who do not receive proper nourishment at home, hot dinners are provided in the schools, and the parents in times of sickness or adversity are advised and materially assisted by the teachers, acting as settlement workers and tactful household visitors. More than 10,000 children attended these industrial schools during the year, including 4,000 in the kindergartens; 269 crippled children and fifty-one mentally defective children in special classes, and 140 truant boys in handicrafts.

ORPHANS and abandoned children should be placed out in good, carefully selected family homes in the country. This is the most satisfactory work accomplished by the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY. It is strikingly successful in results, for the orphan or abandoned child is transplanted from the worst environment to the best. During the last year 668 children were placed in families for adoption.

HOMELESS AND WAYWARD BOYS are given a period of probation at our Brace Farm School before homes on farms are sought for them. During the year 701 boys were trained and placed in families.

WILLFUL AND DISOBEDIENT GIRLS are given a training in housework at our Elizabeth Home, No. 307 East Twelfth Street. Last year 235 girls were trained and placed in situations.

DISPOSSESSED MOTHERS with children are cared for temporarily at our Mothers' Home, No. 311 East Twelfth Street. To 466 helpless mothers and children shelter was given during the year.

WE INVITE your co-operation. The list of industrial schools and temporary homes will be sent on application to the Secretary, Mr. C. L. Brace, at the central office, 105 East Twenty-second Street, and information will be cheerfully given.

TO THE PUBLIC:

CONTRIBUTIONS in aid of this great work will be gratefully received by Mr. A. B. HEPBURN, Treasurer of the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, at 105 East Twenty-second Street. Clothing and shoes are greatly needed, and partly worn articles will prove acceptable, as the garments will be repaired in our sewing classes, and the shoes put in condition by the boys of the cobbling classes. Old magazines, books and toys will also be welcome.

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PUBLICATION COMMITTEE

CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF

THE CITY OF NEW YORK

105 East 22d Street, New York

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Class Matter

Congestion and Civic Policy.

Chicago furnishes at present a striking example of how the lack of a definite and constructive policy by all the city departments concerned may defeat the wisest course of action in dealing with a specific civic problem. To counteract in any appreciable degree the evil tendencies toward city congestion requires not merely the earnest endeavor of one department, but the co-operation of all that in any way affect the conditions which need remedy.

It would seem that the park commissions of a city and its board of education might easily work together in adherence to a definite policy for lessening congestion. The fact of the matter is, however, that these two departments of municipal government in Chicago are working at cross purposes in this respect. While one is spending large sums to secure breathing spaces in crowded areas, the other is actually facilitating still greater crowding in those identical neighborhoods.

The particular way in which this

curious "contrariness" has become manifest is in connection with sites for new school buildings in two wards on the West Side, where the crowding is shocking and the park facilities practically nill. True, playgrounds are to be provided with the new school buildings, but in clearing the sites, the board finds no other way than to offer the tumble-down hovels for sale to the highest bidders, who may do with them whatever fancy or inordinate greed may dictate.

This usually means that if the ramshackle affair will stand moving without falling to pieces, a "thrifty" contractor buys it for a pittance and squeezes it into some nearby lot. The former front building is shoved to the rear, and every inch of the lot which the law permits is covered by rookeries unfit for decent habitation. In fact, it has been discovered that some purchasers of these structures make a specialty of moving them just far enough away to be included in the board's next purchase of land.

Obviously, the best interests of the community demand that frame tenements of this description, which are a menace not only to those unfortunate enough to be crowded within their walls, but to the whole city, should be torn down. The slight loss involved would be utterly trifling in view of the resultant gain to the whole community.

All the more clearly, however, it becomes evident that the other city departments must be brought into line with the general purpose. The regulations and administration of the sanitary bureau must lend themselves to the work of condemning any buildings unfit for habita-

tion. The building ordinances must be so bolstered up that it will be impossible to move buildings at random. The new building code of the city of Cleveland provides that within a central zone frame buildings shall not be moved at all, but must be torn down; that in the next zone frame buildings may be moved, but only to the third or outer zone; and that within the outer zone there are no restrictions whatsoever upon moving frame buildings. The absence of such a co-ordinated building code in Chicago simply means that the whole intent of the provision setting the limits within which, as a fire precaution, frame buildings shall not be erected, is violated. For there is entire lack of any restriction on the moving of frame buildings, provided the regulations regarding passageways and the proportion of the lot which may be covered are respected.

**Nearly a
Million for
Charities.**

On August 10 Commissioner Hebbard of the Department of Public Charities, New York City, was entrusted with the expenditure of \$968,000 for new buildings and other improvements of a permanent character. Hospital patients who have had to sleep in winter upon the floors of the Blackwell's Island hospitals and elsewhere, can now be provided with beds.

Unsanitary dormitories for hospital helpers in attics and wooden shacks erected at the time of the Civil War, which are firetraps and have been used long after their condemnation by the Board of Health, can by this appropriation be replaced with modern dormitories of permanent and sanitary construction. The wretched barn-like "Klondike" at the almshouse on Blackwell's Island, which serves as the only general sitting room for over a thousand men, will give place to a light, airy iron structure of sanitary construction; a similar building will be provided for the women who now have no other places to sit but on stairs and door-sills.

At Kings County Hospital much needed improvements will be made to keep the patients warm in cold weather

and a new morgue will be provided, with a chapel for funerals.

A fireproof stairway will save many old men at the Brooklyn almshouse from the risk of a horrible death. Many other pressing needs will be met.

The finance committee of the Board of Aldermen was not disposed at first to approve the resolution of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment for the issue of this large amount of corporate stock at the present time, but consented to give an early hearing upon the resolution. This hearing was well attended; improvements were urged by Commissioner Hebbard, the representatives of the Visiting Committee of the State Charities Aid Association, the National Civic Federation, and others present. On July 31, the finance committee reported that it was in full accord with the plans of the commissioner of charities for the betterment of conditions in his department, and the committee's report resulted in the adoption of the ordinance by the Board of Aldermen.

**Child Labor
Inspectors in
Maryland.**

Charles J. Fox, chief of the Maryland Bureau of Statistics and Information, has announced the appointment of six inspectors to see that the child labor law passed by the last Legislature is enforced. Those appointed are:

Michael J. Lindsay, of Texas, Baltimore county.

T. Hunt Mayfield, of Ellicott City, Howard county.

Mack Herzog, of Baltimore.

Miss S. Elizabeth Spicer, of Baltimore.

Mrs. Mary A. Richardson, of Baltimore.

Mrs. Blanche A. C. Wells, of Catonsville.

Mr. Fox consulted Governor Warfield concerning the applicants, and the governor told him to make his own selections. The appointment of Miss Spicer was recommended by members of the Consumers' League, which was instrumental in having the law enacted. Miss Spicer is connected with the Charity Organization Society. Mr. Herzog was recommended by the Federation of Labor, which was requested to send in a name for one of the positions. Mr. Fox named Mr. Lindsay. Mrs. Wells and Mrs. Richardson were recommended by Governor Warfield.

A Tuberculosis Contest

Lilian V. Robinson

At the time of the recent tuberculosis exhibit at the South End, Boston, a special attempt was made to interest children (girls and boys under sixteen) in the exhibit. The exhibit (under the auspices of the Boston Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis) was held at the old Franklin schoolhouse, a building no longer used for school purposes and situated in the very heart of one of the most thickly populated districts in the city.

The Hawthorne Club, a neighborhood house a stone's throw away, offered a prize of ten dollars for the ten best answers to ten questions on tuberculosis. Five hundred circulars like the one following, were placed in the hands of the superintendent of the exhibit, and children applying for them were told that they could be had only at the exhibit, where the answers could also be discovered after careful search:

The Hawthorne Club

offers a prize of ten dollars for the best answers to the following questions:

1. Tell the three most important things to have in your sleeping room if you are a consumptive and wish to be cured.
2. Tell the three most important things to avoid in your sleeping room.
3. Mention a drink that will help you to get well and one that will make it hard for you to get well.
4. Why ought you to wash your hands before you eat?
5. Tell five places where a consumptive ought not to spit.
6. Why does he do wrong to spit in these places?
7. Give directions for safe disposal of sputum (spit)?
8. Mention six kinds of food which consumptives ought to eat.
9. If a consumptive cannot get proper food in his own home, and it is very hard for his family to take care of him, where ought he to go?
10. Does the careful, clean consumptive endanger his friends?

The answers must be left at or sent to the Hawthorne Club, Garland St., by March 15th. The name, address, and age of the competitor must accompany the answers, and the school and club to which he belongs. Girls and boys under sixteen may compete.

Children flocked to the exhibit, sometimes alone and often in groups with public school teachers, settlement workers or parents—all interested in the children's efforts. The superintendent of

the exhibit testified to the great interest shown by the children and the intelligence and perseverance with which they went from one part of it to another trying to find out answers. The head master in the large grammar school of the district, hearing of the prize contest, offered to give his pupils time during school hours to write out their answers. His interest and that of the teachers of his school (the Franklin) doubtless did much to rouse enthusiasm among the children, and it was a Franklin school child who won the prize.

Answers began to come to the Hawthorne Club within forty-eight hours after the opening of the exhibit and at the end of the ten days specified, about three hundred had been sent in. Five judges representing settlement and neighborhood houses of the district, after careful consideration awarded the prize to a child of eight, a little Russian immigrant who came to this country about five years ago. The prize paper exactly as written (in a clear, well formed hand) with punctuation, spelling, etc., is given below.

1. The three most important things we have to have in our sleeping rooms is fresh air, plenty of sunshine, and to have it fixed every morning.

2. The three most important things to avoid in our sleeping room is not to have the windows closed and not to have a close room.

3. The drink that will help you to get well is milk, and the drink that will make it hard for you to get well is whiskey.

4. You have to wash your hands before you eat because the dirt and germs which are on the hands mixes in the food.

5. A consumptive ought not to spit on the floors, nor in the streets, nor on the sidewalks, and not on the floors of the hall-ways.

6. Because he does not know that the poisonous sputum dries into dust, and other people breathe it into their lungs and cause sickness.

7. A consumptive should be careful to burn his spit, or put it in the toilet.

8. A consumptive ought to eat good, fresh meat, eggs, oatmeal, rice, bread and butter, and fruit.

9. If a consumptive cannot get proper

food and care in his own home he or she should go to a sanatorium.

10. The careful, clean, consumptive is not dangerous to those with whom he lives and works.

My name is Becky Wolkowitz. I live at 20 Fay street. I am eight years old, and I go to the Hawthorne Club, and the Franklin School.

Little Becky is one of the sick children to whom special care has been given in the Hawthorne Club. In the article *City of Hawthorne*, CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, Nov. 4th, 1905, her case is described under Rebecca W—. But *mentally*, Becky seems far in advance of most children of her age. Her charming little face is all intelligence and animation and she is quite as free from self-consciousness, as she is generous and sweet tempered. When asked what she would do with her prize, she replied at once, "I shall give it all to my mother."

Special attention has been given to lessons in hygiene in the Hawthorne Club. They have been given under trained nurses for several years, and great emphasis has been laid on instruction on the prevention of tuberculosis. It is interesting to note that of the thirteen best papers sent in by children from various organizations, five were those of Hawthorne Club children, two of Hale House, and the other six of children from six different organizations. And this in spite of the fact that the Hawthorne Club children were much younger than the other competitors. One might infer that the hygiene lessons had borne fruit.

Besides the prize paper honorable mention was given twelve other papers by older children, and there were many besides of a high order of excellence. Two "honorable mention" papers follow—one included because it is the work of a boy of seven.

Rose Suchonitsky, age thirteen years, Union Park St., Franklin School:

1. The three most important things to have in your sleeping, if you are a consumptive and wish to be cured, are cleanliness, fresh air, and the sunshine.

2. Three important things to avoid in a sleeping room are dirt, impure air, and no sunlight.

3. A drink which will enable one to get well is milk. Whereas a drink which will make it hard to get well is beer, whiskey, or any other intoxicating drinks.

4. One should wash the hands before eating to wash off the dirt which has collected since last washed, as many germs are in the dust.

5. A consumptive shouldn't spit in the street, house, street car, public places, and in a handkerchief.

6. They should not spit in these places, because people are apt to step in it and therefore shall get this disease. The sputum will then dry and go into the air. Persons not knowing this will inhale these germs. This is the real cause of consumption.

7. A consumptive while in the house should spit in a spittoon half filled with water, this should be emptied once a day into the water-closet. While in the street he should always carry a pouch or bag into which he may spit. As soon as this is filled it should be destroyed immediately by fire.

8. A consumptive should eat food such as a quart of milk a day, from three to six eggs, fresh meat, oatmeal, bread and butter, and fruit.

9. If a consumptive cannot get proper care and food in his own home he should go to a sanatorium where he will be properly cared for, and sleep out-doors. They do not catch cold because they are wrapped up very warm.

10. If a consumptive is careful and clean he will not endanger his friends.

Mark Davis, age seven years old, Compton St., Hawthorne Club:

1. The most important things to have in your sleeping room are fresh air, sunshine, and a clean room.

2. You ought not to have in your sleeping room bad air, things hanging around, or other people who have consumption.

3. One of the most important things to drink are milk and water.

4. You ought to wash your hands before you eat because your hands are dirty, and the germs will get into them.

5. A consumptive or not to spit in halls, or houses, in schools, or on the seat in the bath room.

6. When the spit dries up the germs fly around and you get consumption.

7. You or to spit in and take a piece of rag and nok it down the water-closet.

8. You or to eat fresh meat, eggs, oatmeal, rice, figbars, bread and butter.

9. If a person cannot get food in his own home he or to go in a semeterrie.

10. A consumptive does not endanger his friends if he is careful.

Notes

Minnesota Association for the Prevention and Relief of Tuberculosis.—Following the preliminary conferences which have been held in various cities in Minnesota during the last two months, a meeting of those interested in the tuberculosis problem in that state was called in Minneapolis on July 18. There were present representatives from Minneapolis, St. Paul and Duluth, official delegates from the State Federation of Women's Clubs, the labor organizations of Minnesota, and physicians representing the medical societies of both schools, as well as the State Board of Health. With such a gathering, it is not strange that definite results followed. A Minnesota Association for the Prevention and Relief of Tuberculosis was organized with George C. Christian of Minneapolis, as president, and Dr. H. M. Bracken of St. Paul as secretary. A board of directors of thirty members equally divided between physicians and laymen was elected and a constitution and by-laws adopted. Plans for an active campaign throughout the state have already been laid. The Western Conference on Tuberculosis, which met for the first time in Chicago last winter, will hold its second meeting in Minneapolis in January and it is expected that the Tuberculosis Exhibition of the National Association will be sent to Minnesota at that time.

United Hebrew Charities, Philadelphia.—At the thirty-seventh annual meeting of the United Hebrew Charities of Philadelphia, announcement was made of the purchase of a more commodious building for the association's work. The new quarters are located at 516 North Fourth street. The size of the building will permit the introduction of work rooms where garments for charitable distribution can be made instead of being purchased, as at present.

Employment Exchange.

Address all communications to Miss Helen M. Kelsey, Editor Employment Exchange Department of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, Room 535, 156 Fifth Avenue. Kindly enclose postage if a reply is desired.

WANTED—Young woman of marked executive ability for responsible position as Superintendent in Food Department of a large society; practical knowledge of food, business experience, and interest in economics desired.

WANTED—Visiting nurse for small settlement not far from New York City.

WANTED—Two men of experience in the management of boys' clubs, who are successful in and enthusiastic about this work, to take position in charge of clubs in large cities in the East.

WANTED—General Assistant in settlement in eastern city. Small salary to one who has had slight experience. Young woman who is successful with boys preferred.

YOUNG woman with four years' experience in Charitable work with children would like position along similar lines.

WOMAN of considerable experience in settlement outside New York wishes opportunity to work among the Jewish population here. Would accept position covering expenses only.

A YOUNG woman who has had experience in the institutional work and parish visiting of a city church wishes opportunity to do settlement or club work.

YOUNG woman of experience in settlement work wishes temporary engagement for September or October. Would accept small salary.

YOUNG Jewess who has had charge of the work of a settlement wishes position as Head worker. Would consider an opening in the middle West.

WOMAN of varied experience in social work wishes position of executive nature, if possible to include some literary work.

TEACHER who understands thoroughly methods of instruction in institutions wishes position in the East.

AN opportunity to do part time work in Boston is desired by a young college man who has been Physical Director in a settlement in the West.

SEVERAL young women who have become interested in social work through their college courses in Sociology wish opportunities to enter settlement work. Salary sufficient to cover all expenses necessary.

RECENT graduates in Domestic Science wish opportunities to teach in settlements.

GRADUATE of the Summer School of Philanthropy who has had experience as a teacher wishes to take up social work, preferably with children.

WOMAN intending to do graduate study in New York wishes work with older girls in a recreation center or settlement.

WOMEN of more or less training and experience in settlement work wish openings in New York and other cities.

The New York School of Philanthropy

The enrollment for the school year 1906-7 has begun. There are still a small number of scholarships available for suitable applicants.

Many of the students of the class of '06 went directly from the school to positions of more or less importance. There were several requests for graduates for positions which had to go unfilled.

The demand seems greatest for people to fill such positions as those of Charity Organization Society Secretary, Club Worker, and Financial Secretary. It seems reasonable to say that any bright young man or woman with the requisite natural qualifications, good academic preparation and one year's hard study and field work with the school, is certain of an opportunity for a career at very reasonable compensation.

For enrolment blanks, further particulars, etc., address the Director.

EDWARD T. DEVINE,
105 E. 22nd St.,
New York.

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A STUDY OF FAMILY DESERTION.....	.50
NEW YORK CHARITIES DIRECTORY, 1906...	1.00

State Charities Aid Association

I. Inspection and Improvement of Public Institutions

The first object of the association is to improve the condition of public charitable institutions in the state of New York. It has 1,000 volunteer visitors in fifty different counties. Through these and through its office staff it visits state hospitals for the insane, state charitable institutions, county, city and town almshouses and public hospitals. The number of inmates of such institutions exceeds 47,000, and they cost the public over \$8,000,000 a year. This voluntary co-operation of private citizens with public officials is a work of practical patriotism and has greatly improved the administration of state, county and municipal charities.

II. Charity Legislation

Besides framing and securing the passage of needed legislation, the association examine carefully all bills relating to charitable matters (about 100 each year), and takes such action as may be advisable to secure their passage, amendment or defeat. Its independence of official appointment and of the public treasury gives it a peculiarly favorable position for legislative work.

III. Placing Destitute Children in Families

Orphans, foundlings and permanently deserted children are received from public officials and from institutions in which they are supported by public funds, and are placed in carefully selected permanent free homes usually in the country. Many of them are legally adopted. Five hundred and fifty-six children, received since August, 1898, from many different counties, have been placed in free family homes in all parts of this state, and in several other states.

IV. Providing Situations for Mothers with Babies

Homeless mothers with infants or small children received from public maternity hospitals, infant and foundling asylums, and charitable societies, are provided with situations in the country, keeping their children; 590 situations were provided last year; nine children died while with their mothers in situations (death-rate a little over one per cent); in institutions for children of this age the death-rate is very high. The average cost of each mother and baby under our care last year was \$3.72.

V. Boarding Motherless Infants in Families

A joint committee of this Association and the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor receives foundlings, abandoned and other motherless babies from the Department of Public Charities, and places them in carefully selected suburban families to board until they are strong enough to be placed in permanent free homes for adoption; the mortality among the foundlings has thus been reduced to eleven per cent; 327 babies were under care last year. In addition to what the city pays towards the board of the children, the annual cost of the work to the Joint Committee is \$5,000.00.

Total number of children under the supervision of the Association, October 1, 1905, 1,220. If supported in institutions, they would cost the public \$122,000 per year.

ALL BRANCHES OF THE ASSOCIATION'S WORK ARE SUPPORTED BY VOLUNTARY CONTRIBUTIONS

The total expenses are \$30,000 per year. Contributions of any amount will be gratefully received. Checks should be made payable to Charles S. Fairchild, treasurer, Room 702, No. 105 East Twenty-second street. Special contributions for Nos. III, IV or V, (see above) should be so designated. Clothing for women and children, especially babies, is also desired.

105 EAST TWENTY-SECOND STREET, NEW YORK

Please mention CHARITIES AND THE COMMON when writing to advertisers.

TO PHILANTHROPIC WORKERS:

WHEN you find children living in a state of neglect and it becomes your aim to uplift the family through the children, we ask that you bear in mind that you have at command the medium of the day and evening industrial schools of the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, where the children receive not only an elementary education of mind and hand, but also a moral uplift and an appreciation of the importance of regularity and the value of steady work as well as a knowledge of a higher standard of living. For the children who do not receive proper nourishment at home, hot dinners are provided in the schools, and the parents in times of sickness or adversity are advised and materially assisted by the teachers, acting as settlement workers and tactful household visitors. More than 10,000 children attended these industrial schools during the year, including 4,000 in the kindergartens; 269 crippled children and fifty-one mentally defective children in special classes, and 140 truant boys in handicrafts.

ORPHANS and abandoned children should be placed out in good, carefully selected family homes in the country. This is the most satisfactory work accomplished by the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY. It is strikingly successful in results, for the orphan or abandoned child is transplanted from the worst environment to the best. During the last year 668 children were placed in families for adoption.

HOMELESS AND WAYWARD BOYS are given a period of probation at our Brace Farm School before homes on farms are sought for them. During the year 701 boys were trained and placed in families.

WILLFUL AND DISOBEDIENT GIRLS are given a training in housework at our Elizabeth Home, No. 307 East Twelfth Street. Last year 235 girls were trained and placed in situations.

DISPOSSESSED MOTHERS with children are cared for temporarily at our Mothers' Home, No. 311 East Twelfth Street. To 466 helpless mothers and children shelter was given during the year.

WE INVITE your co-operation. The list of industrial schools and temporary homes will be sent on application to the Secretary, Mr. C. L. Brace, at the central office, 105 East Twenty-second Street, and information will be cheerfully given.

TO THE PUBLIC:

CONTRIBUTIONS in aid of this great work will be gratefully received by Mr. A. B. HEPBURN, Treasurer of the CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, at 105 East Twenty-second Street. Clothing and shoes are greatly needed, and partly worn articles will prove acceptable, as the garments will be repaired in our sewing classes, and the shoes put in condition by the boys of the cobbling classes. Old magazines, books and toys will also be welcome.

105 EAST TWENTY-SECOND STREET, NEW YORK

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In the
Berry Fields
of New Jersey.

A resolution has been sent out by the State Board of Agriculture to all the farmers in New Jersey with the idea of bettering conditions in the berry fields. This is a result of the investigation made by Miss Mina C. Ginger for the Consumer's League of New Jersey in the summer of 1905 and published in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS. The report was reprinted and circulated largely throughout the state. In January at the annual meeting of the State Board of Agriculture in Trenton, resolutions were adopted recommending that the secretary establish such relations between farmers and those interested in the welfare of immigrants, which would facilitate their distribution among the agricultural communities of the state. Such relations have been established with the Labor Information Office for Italians, in New York, and the circular now sent out to the farmers in New Jersey suggests that they make use of the office as a disinterested intermediary. The suitability of Italian immigrant laborers for farm work, especially for fruit culture, is pointed out; and the secretary of the state board suggests that farmers who desire to secure this class of help co-operate either as neighborhoods or through the grange or other organizations and

employ enough of these men and provide such conditions of living as to social intercourse as will make them contented, if possible, as it is scarcely probable that they would continue long, even if engaged, unless there were several employed in the same locality.

This plan of co-operation is rather a striking contrast to the padroni system in

vogue hitherto which has dumped trainloads of Italian families from Philadelphia into the berry fields at the picking season, under the control of contractors and herded in temporary shacks; men, women and little children, under conditions which often have been degrading.

A Summer
Camp for
3,000 Men.

Early in August a camp of 3,000 factory employes was located on the shore of Lake Michigan near Michigan City. It was made up of workers in the manufactories of Dayton, Ohio, who with their families pitched their tents and lived in the out-of-doors for two weeks.

"The White City," as it was called, was a co-operative endeavor planned by the Men's Welfare League of Dayton, an organization of factory workers in that city whose object is "the betterment of working conditions in Dayton and elsewhere." And from the success of this year's enterprise the league is apparently accomplishing its purpose.

The camp was located 200 miles from Dayton, yet the league contracted to carry the campers both ways and furnish them with tents, cots and three meals a day for \$5.75 per individual. A physician and two trained nurses were in attendance and a large playground equipped with swings and other apparatus was provided for the children. In the headquarters tent was located an information bureau, post-office, telephone station, laundry office and tailor shop.

The Welfare League is planning to make "The White City" an annual feature of its work. This year's experiment shows that such a camp can be made a success.

Seventy-one
Years in
Cotton Mills.

This graphic description of the evils of a by-gone day in New England fits sadly well the life of cotton mill workers in our own day in many parts of the South. Only the company store is missing from the Rhode Island picture, a more modern invention for returning to the company the lion's share of the wages paid its employees.

How long will the American people endure in one part of the republic oppression and cruelty thus outgrown in more humane regions? Stephen A. Knight, a member of the great cotton firm of B. B. and R. Knight, of Rhode Island, has been seventy-one years in the mills. He began at six as a bobbin boy. The Knights use more cotton in their mills than a fertile cotton field the size of all Rhode Island would produce. Says Mr. Knight to the *Providence Journal*:

During my connection with the cotton industry I have seen the hours of work reduced over 30 per cent., wages increased some 200 per cent., such child labor as was the unquestioned custom of those days prohibited by law, and an increase in educational and social advantages that we little dreamed of.

It was in the spring of 1835 when I began my labors in a cotton mill as bobbin boy, or back boy, as it was called in those days. The mill was in the town of Coventry; its owner was one of the progressive and intelligent manufacturers of the day, who had been governor of the state. And yet his attitude toward his help, as illustrated in the following incident, was such as would not be tolerated to-day.

It was his custom to make a contract with his help on the 1st of April. On one occasion a mother of several children who were employed in the mill complained that the pay seemed small, and suggested that a better contract might be offered her.

"You get enough to eat, don't you?" asked the employer.

"Just enough to keep the wolf from the door," she replied.

"And you have enough clothes to wear, haven't you?" he continued.

"Barely enough to cover our nakedness," said she.

"Well," said the employer, ending the interview, "we want the rest." And he undoubtedly considered his point of view the just and reasonable one.

My services as bobbin boy brought me forty-two cents a week. For this sum I worked in the mill, on an average, fourteen hours a day for six days a week, or a total of eighty-four hours. Thus my pay was at the rate of half a cent per hour.

No daylight was wasted by the manufacturer. During the summer months we went in as early as we could see, without having waited for anything to eat. After working about an hour and a half we had half an hour for breakfast. At 12 o'clock we had another half hour for dinner, and then we worked until the light began to fail. The stars were out as we walked home for supper, and bedtime came quickly after the evening meal. There was neither time nor energy left for evening pastimes.

During the winter months, from September 20 to March 20, the hours in the mill were from 5 o'clock in the morning to 8 o'clock in the evening, with the same hours, or half hours, for meals as in the summer time. There was little time for schooling, and opportunities for education and recreation were extremely limited for all. The mill bell was the only clock that was needed in the village.

-What little opportunity we had for education was chiefly on Sunday, and it was in the Sabbath school that I, like many other children who were mill workers, practically learned the alphabet.

There were also at times during the winters evening schools taught by private individuals which we could attend, but these accomplished little, since a child who had worked fourteen hours in a mill, ending at 8 o'clock in the evening, was poorly fitted to devote much time to study. My own first regular attendance at school was when I was about twenty years old, after I had earned money enough to enable me to devote time to study.

The pay for mill workers was as small as the hours were long. For the younger children fifty cents a week was about the maximum. Good spinners could earn from \$2 to \$2.50 a week. Weavers made from \$3 to \$5 a week, the latter being regarded as unusually large remuneration. Overseers were paid from \$6 to \$7.50 a week, but he was an uncommonly good man who could command the latter figure.

Pay day came only four times a year, instead of every week as now. The frequency of pay day is one of the changes that have come gradually during the years. From once in three months it was changed to once a month, then to once in two weeks, and finally to once a week.

Our homes are larger to-day; the houses are better built and kept in better repair; their furnishings are better; sanitary conditions are greatly improved; adequate schools are provided; opportunities for recreation are present in ever-increasing variety.

An Italian
Hospital for
New York.

Through the efforts of Celestino Piva, superintendent of the Italian Benevolent Institute of New York, a movement to establish an Italian hospital in this city has been started. The Italian

government has agreed to contribute \$60,000 towards the project on condition that a like amount be raised in this country. In spite of the fact that New York's Italian colony numbers but few rich men, half of the required amount was raised in a fortnight.

Social workers in New York are constantly meeting with difficulty in inducing the sick Italians to go to a hospital. The aversion is not entirely due to the hospital as a hospital. The dietary is not what he has been accustomed to—the language is unknown. The same trouble has been met in the work with other nationalities some of which have already provided hospitals for their sick.

**A Boys' Good
Government
Club.**

Judge Albert M. Mathewson of the city court of New Haven, Conn., believes with Judge Lindsay of Denver that if the juvenile court is designed to keep children out of jail there ought to be some method to keep them out of court altogether. The Boys' Good Government Club of New Haven was established with this end in view.

Writing in *The Independent*, Judge Mathewson states that of the thirty-three boys who have become members of the club since its organization in August, 1905, only one has been brought before the court a second time.

Last summer seven boys ranging from twelve to sixteen years of age were arrested in New Haven on a charge of theft. Two of them had previously been arrested for burglary and under the old administration of the law they would have been committed to the Connecticut School for Boys.

To quote from Judge Richardson:

These boys were placed in the hands of the probation officer, but the judge rather startled the city court officials by commanding them to await the adjournment of the court in his office. After court the judge explained to them that while they were strictly in the charge of the probation officer, they would report to this officer through the judge, who would meet them once a week.

The constitution of the club, which is given herewith, will explain its practical purposes:

THE BOYS' GOOD GOVERNMENT CLUB OF NEW HAVEN.

This club is organized for the study of questions connected with the government of the city of New Haven and for a better understanding of the duties of the various city officials, the reason for their existence, their election and powers.

MEMBERSHIP.

Boys who are invited by either judge of the city court shall be eligible to membership and shall have all the rights and duties of members as long as they may wish to continue in said club or until expelled by the other members of the club under such ordinances as shall be established or by order of the judge of the city court.

OFFICERS.

Regular elections shall be held on the first Wednesday evening of October and on the first Wednesday evening of each second month thereafter, at which time a mayor, city clerk, chief of police, and such other officers as may be established by ordinance shall be elected by ballot from among the members of the club. At said election a board of aldermen of not more than fifteen members shall be elected.

POWER OF ALDERMEN.

Said board of aldermen may pass ordinances for the government of the club by vote of the board, signed by the mayor, which shall become binding and operative if approved by the judge of the city court, but if not approved within three days after passage, said ordinances shall be null and void.

MEETINGS.

Regular meetings of the club shall be held on each Wednesday evening at 7:15 o'clock.

The boys very soon wanted some badge or button to show their membership in the club, and a button with the seal of the city of New Haven in the center and the name of the club in the outer circle was adopted and is worn continually by all the members, including the judge.

The club has proved a success beyond the best hopes of its originator, and has accomplished much in stimulating the boys to realize the reasonableness of state and city governments and the necessity of the laws and ordinances under which they live, and to regard them more carefully.

Two distinct objects are accomplished, the first and most important being the influence on the boy himself in showing him that some one has an interest in him and is willing to help him, and in stimulating in him a pride to do better, and second, through this boy reaching his friends and discouraging the first steps toward a court record.

**New York's
Camp for
Sick Babies.**

The experiment of a fresh-air camp for sick babies in the heart of New York has proven successful. J. D. Rockefeller gave some money and an unimproved plot of land at 64th street and East River. The work is under the auspices of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, and under the personal direction of Alice Crowell Ellison, as superintendent.

There are five bungalows, each with twelve beds, and the whole pavilion scheme is connected by a covered passage with a rehabilitated mansion, which serves as an administration building and staff dormitory. Sick infants are received day or night; and, except for surgical work, the place is fully equipped as a hospital. The chief work, however, is the care of babies with summer complaint. The open shacks give fresh air, a central diet kitchen furnishes the food, a medical staff is in attendance, the nursing is by trained students or graduates, and a principal part of the work is the education of mothers by regular demonstrated lectures and personal instruction.

Adjoining the pavilions on the bluff are tents or refuges for women and children, other than sick babies, and hundreds of poor women gather there every day. It is found that the women welcome the assistance and readily attempt to apply in their homes the simple methods taught them at the camp. Day babies are supplied appropriate milk for the night at home and discharged cases are followed up by visitation. The oral instruction of mothers, whether applicable to specific cases under treatment in the wards or generally useful for their homes, is reinforced by printed matter and a limited amount of district-nurse visiting. Excellent results have been obtained, and this educational work is perhaps the most satisfactory.

It is hoped to continue and extend the work by establishing similar camps throughout the city. The institution has attracted outside attention and visiting experts from other cities have inspected the plant with a view to reproducing its features. The camp, called "Junior Sea Breeze," has apparently answered several important questions in regard to the need

and efficiency of such work and solved many problems of organization and administration. Miss Ellison, late of the New York Hospital, organized and managed the Belknap Summer Home for Children at Rockaway, and has had wide experience and success.

**Organizing
the Retail
Clerks.**

Consumers' League principles, which apply to the conditions of sale as well as the manufacture of articles, may soon be more easily put into practice in Chicago, so far as clerks' conditions are concerned, if the plans of the Retail Clerks' Protective Association are successfully carried out. For, instead of having each union member wear a button, it is proposed to give a store the privilege of displaying a union card near its entrance if it is run in accordance with the improved conditions the union wishes to secure. If a shopper wishes to trade only at stores which are closed all day Sunday, which allow employes a couple of nights a week or more off, which supplies comfortable seats behind counters where salesladies are employed, and which pays fair wages, it is only necessary to observe as one enters the door whether or not the union store card is displayed.

Although it is not proposed to make all of the foregoing demands at once, the order in which they will arise is expected to be as outlined. A general movement is under way in Chicago for a thorough organization of the clerks, and the Retail Clerks' International Protective Association has sent its organizer to accomplish the purpose. The many citizens, social settlement folk and others who have witnessed and participated in the rise of clerks' unions before—only to see them dwindle away—are filled with a hope that the present effort may prove successful. Many of them are co-operating, and it is expected that some of the social settlements will render effective service by throwing open their doors to meetings in the interest of the organization. As noted in these columns at the time, even before the organizer began his work, the Women's Trade Union League appointed a committee of its prominent

members to see what could be done toward forming a retail clerks' union.

The methods now used vary in essential ways from those of the former organizations. Instead of organizing by stores and localities, the new movement is along craft lines. Under the former method disastrous strikes occurred in particular stores which happened to be organized, although at nearby places where the union did not exist the conditions were practically the same as those against which protest was made. This made a great deal of friction and caused the employer to resist all the more stubbornly the demands of the union. The new organizer recognizes the wrongs and lack of wisdom in this unfortunate policy. Under the craft organization, therefore, all the grocery clerks in the city will form one local, dry goods clerks another, and so on. It is expected that this policy will enable the union to gain better conditions without recourse to strikes, by showing the employers the reasonableness of introducing uniformly the Sunday closing, shorter hours, and minimum wage scales.

Maryland and the Indeterminate Sentence. To investigate the value of the indeterminate sentence, Governor Warfield of Maryland has appointed the following commission: John T. Stone, Leigh Bonnal, Henry J. Ford, Dr. W. W. Wilmoughby and John F. Weyler, warden of the Maryland Penitentiary. By an act of the last legislature the members are empowered to visit states in which the indeterminate sentence is in force, and to report to the next legislature.

The National Prison Association

Amos W. Butler
General Secretary, Indianapolis, Ind.

A third of a century ago comparatively few states had institutions for reforming juvenile delinquents; there were no reformatories for adults; the indeterminate sentence, schools in prisons, grading of prisoners and the merit system were unknown. The juvenile court is a development of very recent years. Some

of our states glory in all of these advances; others have secured part of these measures; still others have scarcely taken a step. Those that have taken up this way of progress would not turn about nor retrace their steps.

All of this great progressive movement of the last third of a century has been practically coincident with the life of the National Prison Association. Its initial meeting was a most important one in the subsequent progress of social affairs. Looking back, one can see the development of the ideas embodied in the principles there expressed. The seed there sown has been growing and bearing fruit all along the years. Its influence will continue with us an abiding force for good.

Few of the founders of the Association are left, but some of them remain to see the realization of many hopes that in those earlier years seemed as air castles. Z. R. Brockway, formerly superintendent of the New York State Reformatory; Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, president of the Ohio Board of State Charities; Rev. J. L. Milligan, D. D., for many years the efficient secretary of the National Prison Association; Capt. Edward S. Wright, for a long time superintendent of the Western Pennsylvania Penitentiary; Col. Charles E. Felton, widely known because of his varied experience in prison and police work; Frank B. Sanborn, ex-secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Charity, and Peter Caldwell, superintendent of the Industrial School, Louisville, Ky., are the seven of that original company remaining whom we may confidently hope to have present at the coming meeting at Albany, N. Y., September 15 to 20.

The officials of the state of New York and all friends of the Association have taken an especial interest in this congress. Very appropriately they have sought to recall the valuable services in charities and correction of the late Rev. E. C. Wines in reproducing his picture on the conference badge. His learned son, Dr. Frederick H. Wines, will respond to the addresses of welcome to the conference by Governor Higgins and Mayor Gaus.

The National Prison Association is really a semi-official organization, to which the governors of many states appoint regularly accredited delegates. It is attended by state authorities and prison officials, as well as those who have distinctly a personal interest in its work or represent voluntary organizations. It recognizes that the problems of crime, criminal laws, the treatment and extradition of offenders are of the greatest importance to all our states. Each commonwealth is interested in the best understanding of these questions and in seeking the best recognized and most uniform methods of dealing with them.

The scope of this Association's work is wider than its name would indicate. It not only deals with prisons and every phase of prison work, but considers the questions of criminal laws, the trial of offenders, the prevention of crime, causes of crime and the after-care of discharged prisoners. From its proceedings one will note among other subjects prominently treated: the reception, treatment, training and religious instruction of prisoners; their employment; their medical treatment; the educational facilities and, one of the most important, the release of prisoners.

The whole range of topics, from the enactment of criminal laws, the apprehension of offenders and their detention, trial, sentence, transfer to prison, their reception there, their care, education, training, employment, religious instruction and medical attention; the grading system; their progress toward parole, their release and employment; the supervision of released men until their final discharge,—all of these are very practical and helpful topics to those connected with institutions and are quite instructive to those seeking information. On one side the work of the Association covers some of the field of law; on another it reaches into the religious work of the churches; at many points it comes into contact with special lines of charitable activity, most prominently those concerned with the prevention of degen-

eracy and crime; it engages the attention of physicians interested in both medical and social questions; it considers the questions raised by the labor interests.

In addition to the meeting of the Association, three other organizations will meet in connection with it: the Prison Wardens' Association, N. N. Jones, Fort Madison, Iowa, president and Frank L. Randall, St. Cloud, Minn., secretary; the Prison Physicians' Association, Dr. S. H. Blich, Ocala, Fla., president, and Dr. O. J. Bennett, Allegheny, Pa., secretary; and the Prison Chaplains' Association, Rev. Wm. J. Batt, D. D., Concord Junction, Mass., president and Rev. D. J. Starr, D. D., Columbus, O., secretary.

The important committees whose reports will be presented and discussed are: "Criminal Law Reform," Simeon E. Baldwin, Justice of the Connecticut Supreme Court of Errors, New Haven, chairman; "Preventive and Reformatory Work," C. W. Bowron, superintendent of the Wisconsin State Reformatory, Green Bay, chairman; "Prevention and Probation," Warren F. Spalding, secretary of the Massachusetts Prison Association, Boston, chairman; "Prison Discipline," C. E. Haddox, warden of the West Virginia Penitentiary, Moundsville, chairman; "Discharged Prisoners," Rt. Rev. Samuel Fallows, member of the board of managers of the Illinois State Reformatory, Pontiac, chairman; "Statistics of Crime," Dr. S. J. Barrows, corresponding secretary of the New York Prison Association, New York, chairman.

The evening sessions of the congress will be popular meetings, addressed by some of the most prominent workers in prisons and charities. On Sunday morning, September 16, in the Episcopal Cathedral, Rt. Rev. William Croswell Doane, Bishop of the Diocese of Albany, will preach the annual sermon. The railroads have granted a rate of one and one-third fares for the round trip, on the certificate plan.

The New Child Labor Law in Georgia

Samuel McCune Lindsay
Secretary of the National Child Labor Committee

Georgia is the industrial leader of the new industrial South. At least one-quarter of all the children under fourteen years of age employed in the cotton mills of the entire South are found in Georgia. Until August 1 it was the only southern state without a child labor law of some sort and for over two years the women's clubs, the Georgia Child Labor Committee and the National Child Labor Committee had kept up so active a campaign of education that the child labor issue was easily one of the most talked about political issues of the day. It played no little part in the gubernatorial contest at the recent primaries between Hoke Smith and Clark Howell. Other states, especially Alabama and the Carolinas, watched Georgia and decided that they could make no advance in their child labor legislation until Georgia was willing to act with them in equalizing competitive labor conditions. For two years, therefore, Georgia has discussed the question, but refused to legislate and by so doing has held back practically all child labor reform in the South.

On August 1st, when Gov. Terrell signed the first child labor law of the state, there was a general rejoicing among all the true friends of the children throughout the South because it meant more than protection for the children of Georgia. It meant opening the way for a forward movement in Alabama and the Carolinas, and also in Texas and Virginia, where child labor in the mills is on the increase. Georgia is now in position to assume a new and more desirable leadership and many of her able and high-minded citizens will welcome her removal from the black-list of states indifferent to the welfare of their children.

It was a hard fought legislative battle too, which terminated with the passage of the Bell bill which became law with the signature of Gov. Terrell on August 1. The National Committee moved its southern headquarters to Atlanta nearly a year ago in order to be of the greatest

assistance to the state and local committees. The bill, which passed the lower house of the assembly last year and was defeated in the senate by a real majority of only four votes, was made stronger this year and the wave of feeling which the women of Georgia aroused all over the state after the defeat of a year ago was manifest by the almost unanimous vote in favor of the bill in both houses this year.

The skillful management of many difficult situations by Dr. A. J. McKelway, representing the National Committee, and the work of Rev. Dr. C. B. Wilmer, secretary of the State Committee, Senator Allen D. Candler, ex-governor of the state and chairman of the State Committee and Hon. Madison Bell, a young Atlanta attorney, who began this work upon his entrance into public life a year ago, deserve special mention and are worthy of special praise.

The new child labor law in Georgia goes into effect at once and prohibits the employment in any factory or manufacturing establishment of children under ten year of age under any circumstances. After January 1, 1907, this prohibition applies to children under twelve except when a sworn certificate from the county ordinary (the official title of the probate judges in Georgia) states that the child in question under twelve is an orphan with no other means of support or has a widowed mother or disabled father dependent on its earnings. After January 1, 1908, night work between 7 P. M. and 6 A. M. is prohibited to all children under fourteen in factories, and all such children under fourteen must also after this date for day work be able to read and write and have had twelve weeks' schooling, at least six of which must have been consecutive. Such school attendance is further required until eighteen years of age for children entering employment at fourteen or less.

The standard established in the new law is of course a low one compared with what is now attempted in the more advanced states like New York, Massachusetts, Illinois and Colorado, but it is at least a good beginning. It does not extend its protection beyond factory

children nor touch the evils of messenger service, street trades, tenement house work, etc., nor does its prohibition of night work and its educational test become effective for nearly two years. It will be necessary also for the friends of the measure to provide private agencies to look after its enforcement until the state can be induced to provide factory inspectors, without which such legislation is usually of little avail.

The automatic raising of the standard as the people become accustomed to the workings of the new law is a good fea-

ture in principle, although entirely too conservative in terms and too slow in operation in the present instance. Georgia has made only a good start in the right direction. It remains for the friends of the children to perfect their work and at subsequent sessions of the Georgia legislature to secure state factory inspection, to increase the age limits and educational qualifications, and to extend the provisions of the law to mercantile establishments and the protection of children engaged in the messenger service and in the delivery of merchandise.

The Scope of Practical Social Science

Rev. S. H. Goldenson

If we should be told that Mr. John Smith to whom we were just introduced was interested in practical social science, our imagination would picture him at the head of some relief society or educational institution, or perhaps as the director of a boys' club or junior republic, or as a worker in a social settlement or labor bureau. These institutions that are naturally called into the mind by the mention of this man's interests point to the field of labor of the practical sociologist and define the scope of his activities. Now what do we find when we carefully and critically compare all of these institutions each of which seems to be dedicated to a need that no other one of them could well serve?

An examination of all their activities will reveal a very significant and instructive fact,—that the field of labor in all of them is primarily and essentially the same. The relief society and the junior republic and the educational alliance and all the rest of them operate among certain classes of society. The boys' club is organized by a student of practical sociology for boys who have grown up in the misery and filth of an overcrowded and submerged district of our prosperous commercial centers. The purpose of the educational alliance is to disseminate among the poor children who are unable to take advantage of our school system, such knowledge as is absolutely necessary for self-maintenance. The junior republic aims to inculcate principles of

government and a sense of personal responsibility into the minds of the young recreants of our large cities. The labor bureau aids the unfortunate misfits of society to find something to do. We see then that all these institutions are alike in their general field of operation which is among that portion of society which is unable to take care of itself.

I wonder how many of us would be satisfied to allow this statement of the office and scope of applied sociology to be our final word on the subject. Is it possible that the scope of practical social science is merely among the unfit, the unfortunate, and the needy? If this is the entire province of applied sociology why then give such a high sounding scientific name to so simple a work, good and praiseworthy though it be? I fancy I hear some one who is interested in one of our institutions protest: "This work is not simple and it well deserves the name of science. Would that more science entered into such work!" This wish I too share, but for a slightly different reason.

Let us consider sociology itself. What shall we say is the essence and scope of theoretical sociology? I am sure that anyone who has even a slight knowledge of this subject would be able to state exactly the scope and province of sociology. Most of us, if asked, would answer unhesitatingly: Humanity is the province of social science. We have then revealed this paradox, existing in the

common understanding: namely, that the science of sociology is supposed to be larger than its practical application. The science concerns itself with the whole of humanity. The application concerns itself with only a part of mankind.

I suppose that what causes the confusion is the word "practical." Strange that a common word, a word supposedly so well understood should involve such misunderstanding and such narrowing of horizon! But such evidently is the fact. It seems that a pure science when it enters the practical world must confine itself to one corner of that world. Most likely the reason is found in the fact that it is easier to talk and write about things than to work and live them out. It is less difficult to describe a state of affairs than to effect any change in it.

Owing to inertia and to the constant resistance of the actual world, we unwittingly change the meaning of the word "practical" and confound it with "attainable," or with that which can be easily reached or easily seen. Thus pure sociology when it enters the practical world forgets that it must affect the status of humanity at large.

But "practical" is not a synonym of "the thing at hand," or "the thing easily affected," or "easily seen." The aim of the practical is not simply to see things done and to ease one's conscience in the quickest way but to have things done according to a standard that is in harmony with ultimate aims. The practical refers not to the easiest thing possible, but rather to the best and highest thing possible. That which is less than the better and higher within reach, is not practical enough. The test of the practical is in results. That which leads to the best ultimate results is the most practical.

But ultimate results can be influenced only by absolute standards. They cannot even be aimed at or pointed out by any reasoning which is at war with itself. They cannot be affected by conduct which loses sight, even for a moment, of the real issue. Only when all the elements of the situation are recognized and brought into a harmonious relation

can we hope for the best ultimate results: Like pure sociology whose scope embraces all human inter-actions and relations, applied social science labors within the very same field but not as the former which is interested merely in the interpretation of the laws of such relations, but with a view of affecting and adjusting them in accordance with the just claims of the individual upon society.

The essential problem is how to adjust these relations so as to bring about a more healthy social order. The social organism is manifestly diseased and this does not mean and cannot mean that the affection is limited only to the lower strata of society while the so-called upper ones are in perfect health. We can no more conceive of woe and misery as exclusively confined to one class of society than we can imagine foul air to be limited to one corner of a room. Society is a mutually inter-active affair; disease means nothing more or less than maladjustment; and there is no such a thing as one-sided maladjustment—perfect health on the one hand, disease on the other. Of course, the person in power or the person with wealth does not arouse our attention because he possesses what is becoming and due to every man—for the normal never calls for comment—but from the point of view of society, he who is rich and powerful at the expense and to the discomfort of others is as much a diseased factor of the social organism as he who lacks the world's goods. Maladjustment in the social order is nothing else than excess or deprivation, for they both amount to the same thing.

Since our problem is the re-adjustment of social relations, it follows that whatever permanent good is to come to certain classes of individuals (and the welfare of the individual, after all, is the end of our endeavors) such good can only be effected through society as a whole. The only adequate means by which we may secure for the individual material and spiritual well-being is the organization of society. Though the welfare of the individual is of the highest moment, yet such welfare can be guarded and firmly established only through the whole social order. Social science

is interested in the individual only through the organization.

With this in mind it would seem then that if the scope of our science can be said to be more among one class of individuals than another it would be among those in power and position, among those who are at the head of our governments rather than among those who suffer for the lack of such power and position. The sociologist's efforts are at the wrong end. It is those who control the earth's wealth that need to be relieved. It is those who are power-intoxicated that need guardians and wardens. It is those in whose hands are the lives and destinies of myriads of souls that require assistance from our social workers.

Yet if the efforts of our science were confined to the legislative halls and the chambers of commerce, the results, while perhaps better and farther reaching, would still not be permanent. Those who hold the reins of government have not come among us from regions unknown or from a stock unrelated to us. They are sons of our land, flesh of our flesh and bone of our bone, so that here too we must emphasize the fact that social disease cannot be limited to single individuals or to one or two classes, however much they may seem to rule society. No man or group of men can feed on their exclusive vices. A favorite pastime among us is to marvel at the corruption of our representatives and political officials. We blame the tyrants of commerce, but we forget that like the hydra, they are many headed and that we must cut off the central head or the others will multiply.

And what is the central head of this monstrous organization? Who occupies the central place in our government but the people themselves? The social ills and woes, are not confined to the poor alone or to the rich alone, but are conditions of society as a whole, of the poor and the rich and of that great body of individuals who hold the middle ground. That head of ours which is filled with corrupt notions, false standards, low and mean ambitions, that head

that is forever busy with treacherous schemes, with lying motives and self-seeking enterprises, this head it is that needs to be cut off. We may offer succor and relief to the unfortunate misfits among us from now until doom's day, and we may even rid ourselves of the bosses of to-day and society will not be a whit better unless we work from the center, which is wherever two men meet to transact business, whether it be spiritual or material. The center of society is wherever a man's action affects his neighbor.

The public at large is to be taught that the social welfare is safe-guarded and promoted infinitely more by the way we seek to get our wealth than by the way we seem to dispose of it. If we aim to secure wealth through justice, truth and honesty, then myriads of people profit by our methods and enterprises, but no amount of money spent by individuals in relief will ever extend over the whole line thrown into one, suffering and misery by the malpractices of those very individuals. No man can gain wealth or place in life dishonestly but what tens, hundreds and even thousands of men are compromised to some corrupt means and measures. Thus it is that so many men are not free to speak and write and choose as they would wish.

Not then to deal out bread to the hungry and raiment to the naked, or to teach men how to rise to the positions of the so-called successful ones, is the task of the practical sociologist, but to teach all men the responsibilities of society, to inculcate into the members of our communities true principles of social intercourse, to make each man, regardless of his station in life, realize that he himself and not his alderman or mayor or congressman or senator or president, is at all times the responsible agent and representative of the social order.

"Not to scatter bread and gold,
Goods and raiment bought and sold;
But to hold fast his simple sense,
And speak the speech of innocence,
And with hand and body and blood,
To make his bosom counsel good.
He that feeds men serveth few;
He serves all who dares be true."

Slav Emigration at Its Source

Emily Greene Balch

VII.—The Adriatic Coast of Austria-Hungary

[This is the final instalment of a series of seven articles giving some of the results of Miss Balch's studies in Austria-Hungary. Previous instalments appeared in the issues of January 6, February 3, March 3, April 7, May 5, June 2 and July 7.]

The very names that belong to all this region—Istria, Dalmatia, Montenegro, Ragusa, Cattaro and the rest—are to me "magic casements opening on the foam" and it is hard to settle down to the prosaic facts of emigration. Italy with her architecture and her contagious grace of life, Turkey with costumes and manners of the near East, here largely overlay to our eyes the Slavic substance.

We naturally approach things on their most familiar side and just as we are apt to know only a Germanized form of Slavic names—Agram for Zagreb, Lemberg for Lwów—so in this region it is the Italian names that are familiar. We say Fiume not Rjeka, Ragusa not Dubrovnik, Montenegro not Crnagora.

But this fact and the Venetian aspect of the cities and the Italian spoken in hotels is misleading. The Italian element is indeed prevalent in restricted parts of Goricia-Gradisca and Istria, in Fiume and especially in and about Trieste, but for the rest the population of the whole Adriatic coast of Austria and Hungary is essentially Croatian. In Dalmatia, which the tourist is prone to regard as a second and more picturesque Italy, over 97 per cent. of the people speak Croatian, or Servian, which is the same language written with a different alphabet.

This shore, from Nabresina, at the head of the Gulf of Trieste, to a point about as far south as Rome beyond the lovely Bocche di Cattaro, stretches in an air line nearly four hundred miles. Apart from the peninsula of Istria it is a narrow strip of land, broken by fiords and bays, fringed with islands, large and small, and backed by a singularly rugged limestone range, rich in noble contours and violet shadows. It is a country very fertile where soil is to be had, as bare as a pile of stone broken for road mending where the Bora (the North wind) sweeps it or

the salt spray blights it or where the rain has washed the earth from the skeleton of the mountains, denuded of their forests to make piles and masts for Venice of old, or for more prosaic uses since. With its classic ruins, notable among which is the great palace of Diocletian at Spalato, its picturesque Italianate cities, among which Ragusa, with its splendid political and literary history, stands easily first, the wonderful fiord-like beauty of the Bocche di Cattaro, with the snows of Lovcen, rosy in the sunset, inviting to an exploration of Montenegro, with the people thronging its streets and by-ways in various and always picturesque dress, in which Slavic and Oriental elements are curiously intermingled but in which the smart little Dalmatian cap, like a round scarlet box cover set rakishly on the head, seldom fails, each island, each town, each valley with its own special note,—this shore is richer in charm than in means of livelihood.

All along the shore and the islands the peasants are at the same time fishermen and bold and skillful sailors. Unlike most Slavs they are also capable traders, a fact that suggests how much environment and example have to do with what we consider national traits. For centuries they were under the rule of Venice, the queen of eastern commerce, and their land produces articles admirably adapted for export—fish, good wine, olive oil, fruit, including figs and almonds, and of late years the well-known "Dalmatian insect powder," made from certain camomile-like flowers.

Characteristics of Dalmatian Emigration.

Such a folk would naturally be mobile, but Dalmatian emigration, which we may take as the type for this region, has quite a different character from that of any other Slavic emigration. It has been

a long continued dripping, not a mass movement growing like a snowball as among the Slovaks and Croats, nor a family migration as among the Bohemians. The men go alone, often as sailors, simply leaving their ship in port, a fact which in the past has doubtless brought many into America unregistered, in so far vitiating our statistics.

One informant after another laid great stress on the fact that the Dalmatian does not go "like other emigrants" at random, but to a particular place and friend, and with a very clear idea of what he is about.

There is ground enough for emigration in the general situation of a growing population (the natural increase in Dalmatia was about 15 per cent. in the last census decade, a high rate), with very little available soil, so that the most inaccessible spots are terraced and cultivated and a teaspoonful of earth in a hollow is made to grow something. There have been special causes beside—first, the decline of the old commerce, dependent on sails, and it must be said on piracy. On the shores of the Bocche one sees dream-like streets of deserted villas and at Zeng the proud



The Lands to the East of the Adriatic

Racial occupation is indicated by shading as follows: Majority speaking Croatian (or Serbian, which is the same language), white; Slovenian, roughly speaking in the white territory marked Carniola; Italian, slant barred; German, upright barred; Hungarian (Magyar), horizontal barred. Politically this region is cut up regardless of natural relations. The lands between Italy and Hungary are all Austrian. Trieste and its territory count as a separate crown land, and with Gorizia—Gradiska and Istria constitute the so-called "Coast Land" of Austria. The islands of Cherso, Veglia and Lussin belong with Istria. Croatia-Slavonia is an "autonomous kingdom" related to Hungary much as Hungary itself is related to Austria and is one of the "lands of the Crown of St. Stephen." The important city of Fiume, however, has been detached from Croatia and belongs directly to Hungary, of which it is the only port. Dalmatia, to which belong all the islands south of those already spoken of as belonging to Istria, continues the Austrian coast beyond Spizza, though at two points Herzegovina breaks through to the sea. It seems likely that Dalmatia may soon be reunited to Croatia-Slavonia, a former relation recalled by the still used title of "the triunitary kingdom." Bosnia-Herzegovina, nominally still under Turkish suzerainty, was subjected to the military occupation of Austria and Hungary, acting jointly, by the Congress of Berlin in 1878. Montenegro is, of course, an independent principality.

row of warehouses which shield the harbor from the Bora tell the same story of the victory of steam over sails as do the decaying merchant homes of Salem or Newburyport. A later cause was a treaty made in 1890 which depressed the price of wine by exposing it to Italian competition. This clause has just recently been abrogated. Other complaints are of a disease of the insect-powder plants, of failure of fisheries, of severe winters that have done much damage. The evil results of an extreme subdivision of land are also spoken of. A yoke is said to be the average holding of a small peasant. This would be impossible if it were not

govinians. The number of these coming last year (1904-5) was 2,639, of which most were doubtless Dalmatians.

A steamship agent in Ragusa, the only authorized agent for all Dalmatia, told me that three or four thousand go yearly, three-quarters to New York and one-quarter to the far west. Of the latter nine out of ten go to California, the other to the Dakotas; but this is a very imperfect account of their final destinations.

As to remittances it was impossible for me to get data of any value. I mention incidentally that one informant said that when a man had saved \$120,000. to \$160,000. dollars he was generally ready to re-



Women and girls of Mihanichi. The dress is that of the Canali Valley in Dalmatia. The unmarried girls wear the small round Dalmatia cap either uncovered, as the girl in the foreground has it, or with a white ruching starched and pleated laid over it, as the girl in the profile wears hers.

that the soil is so fruitful. I was told that a yoke of good vineyard would produce seventy hectolitres of wine, enough to support a family. In other places it was said that a family could live from the yield of one olive tree!

It is hard to say when the Dalmatians began to go to America, it was certainly early. One is said to have arrived in 1700 *via* India and I judge a good many came to look for gold in California after '49. The close of the Crimean War in which many served on shipboard seems to have given another impulse.

As to number it is also hard to get any definite information until 1898 when our immigration tables began to report as one class Dalmatians, Bosnians, and Herze-

turn. This sounds as though the Dalmatians dealt with larger sums than most Slavs, which agrees with their greater aptitude for commerce.

Morals and Education.

When the men are away the women attend to the tillage, whatever it is. They have the reputation of being excellent vine-dressers. Personally they are said to stand higher than the women further inland. In some places it is the custom for a woman to go to no dance or festivity while her husband is on the water. But when he is in port she knows he is alive and probably having his share of amusement and she goes with the rest. In general the coast population is natur-

ally more alert, more cultivated by contact with men and affairs than is that of the interior.

They are, however, very illiterate, especially the women. The census of 1900 showed among the Servo-Croatians of Austria (that is practically the Dalmatians and Istrians) complete illiteracy among nearly 70 per cent. of the men between thirty and fifty and among nearly 90 per cent. of the women of the same age. Even among young men between ten and twenty over half could neither read nor write.

In this country I recently met a gentleman from one of the southwestern states who had come to the city where I was to interest investors in a mining enterprise. He was a fine-looking man,

with the speech, bearing and dress of a quiet but prosperous American. I learned that he came in 1849 from Dalmatia on his uncle's ship, which he left to look for gold during the California excitement of that time. His business acquaintances, I am told, wonder why he always leaves them to pick out the particular paper wanted from his pile of assay reports and other documents. He cannot read, nor write anything but his own name.

**Physical
Traits and
Costumes.**

Physically the Dalmatians are a splendid type. The ethnologists note with some surprise the exceptional height of the Dalmatians and still more of their neighbors of Bosnia-Herzegovina. They are among the tallest men of Europe and not only tall but sturdy and markedly fine in their carriage. Very often the honest grey-blue eyes of the Slav look out of the swarthy or olive face of the Southerner.

As to costume, I refer to the article written and illustrated by Ernest Peixotto in *Scribner's Magazine* for July, 1906, which is charming, although it does not seem to me to do full justice to Dalmatia.

I wish that I could show the picture of an old man with whom I talked near Ragusa, but he refused to let me photograph him. This fear of a camera I met more than once here and here alone, and I wondered if it could be a trace of the eastern superstition of the evil eye. He was in full array—Dalmatian cap of red, baggy Turkish trousers of blue, embroidered zouave jackets and wide girdle stuck full of articles among which I only distinguished a horn knife-handle and a richly wrought silver sheath. His long pipe he held in his fingers.

He was a fine old fellow, grey-haired, erect and friendly, speaking English rather remarkably well—better in fact than he understood it. He was in America for six years, he told me, thirty-five years ago. He went as a sailor to New York, then again by ship to San Francisco, where he worked in the gold mines. He made \$60 to \$70 a month working for a big company.



Sabbath clothes in Ragusa.



Montenegrin children. The houses, of un-mortared stone with roofs of grass and no chimneys, are low and smoky.

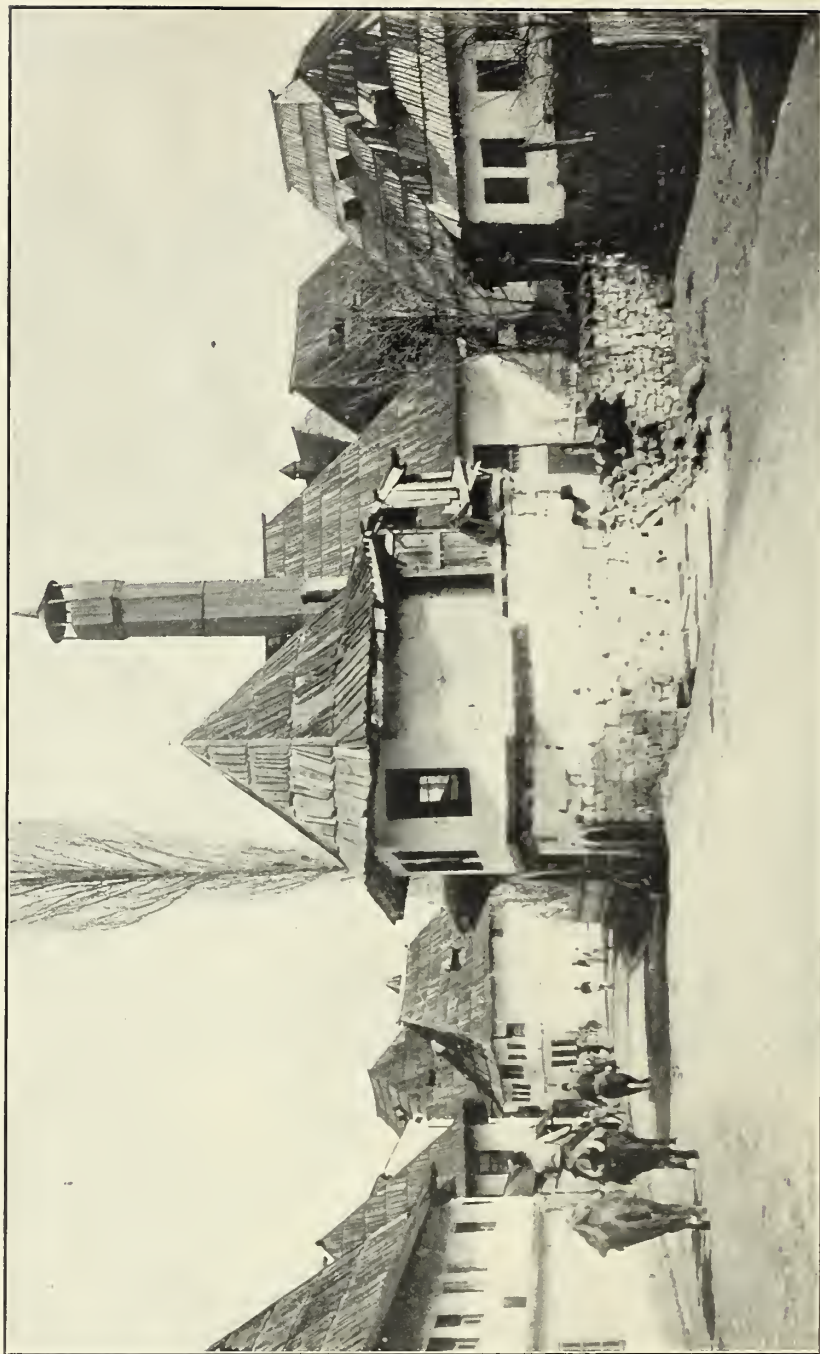
Istria and
Bosnia-
Herzegovina.

I have taken Dalmatian emigration as the type for this region, and of this and the adjoining coast of Croatia no more need be said here.

From Istria, the Croatian-speaking part of which is largely mountainous and extremely poor, the emigration is numerically slight and quite recent, apparently directly due to the opening of the Cunard route from Fiume to New York. It be-

gan to be of importance in 1903, and I was told that Fiume agents incite it.

From Bosnia-Herzegovina, the Turkish province lying back of Dalmatia, which has been "administered" by Austria-Hungary since 1878, according to the decision of the treaty of Berlin, there is also some emigration, but this, too, is numerically unimportant and gives little excuse for describing this fascinating country whose Servo-Croatian people are,



A Bosnian village street. The building in the middle with the shingled roof and minaret is a little mosque.

by a curious turn of history, nearly half Mohammedan, though monogamous by binding custom.¹

Montenegro, Serbia and Bulgaria lie outside the limits of my study of Slavic immigration from Austria-Hungary, but they sent us a Servo-Croatian contingent of 5,823 (figures of 1904-5), or more than twice that of the group composed of Dalmatians, Bosnians and Herzegovinians. Montenegro I visited, but was able to learn little except that its emigrants go mainly to Alaska.

I have, however, just run across traces of a party of thirty-five of them in a Colorado mining camp, where they have left an unenviable reputation for a low grade of living. I saw the rough shacks in which they had bunked promiscuously and I remembered the low huts of unmortared stone, with roofs of grass, filled with smoke and children, which I had seen on their naked mountain sides. I thought of the still frequent newspaper accounts of clashes of their bands with the Turks on the frontier and of how close they stand to the heroic age in which the woman alone labors, since the man must fight and hunt. I recalled the Homeric figure of the blind gusla player singing epic songs in the square at Cetinji (I suppose the only instance in Europe of a living epic), and I did not wonder that the Montenegrins cannot meet at once the standards of the tenth and twentieth centuries.

VIII.—The Slovenians²

"What kind of people are these Grinners?" I was asked in Cleveland, and it did not at first occur to me that the name must be a corruption of the word Krainer, which is what the Germans call the people of Krain—or, as we say in English, Carniola. As a matter of fact, the term is often used not only for these but for the whole Slovenian nationality to which they belong.

They are a South Slav group, close cousins of the Croatsians, but with a dif-

¹To those interested I heartily recommend A. J. Evans' *Through Bosnia and Herzegovina on Foot During the Insurrection, August and September, 1875*. The book includes a delightful historical account of Ragusa and description of bits of Croatia.

²Either form, Slovenians or Slovenes is in good use. They call themselves Slovenci. An earlier name was Vinds or Wends.

ferent, though nearly related, language, and their situation in Austria has brought them (like the Bohemians) into intimate relation with German influences.

The Slovenian Renaissance.

They have, however, twice enjoyed a nationalistic revival, once at the time of the Reformation, which not only awakened religious zeal (nineteen-twentieths of Carinthia, one of the provinces where they live, is said to have become Protestant), but also caused a literary awakening of the language; much as the earlier Hussite movement had done in Bohemia. At this time a considerable Slovenian literature appeared, including a complete translation of the Bible. The Counter Reformation, however, brought about the return of Catholicism and of German literary dominance.

The next Slovenian renaissance came as a result of the Napoleonic wars, which for a short time joined most of the Slovenian territory, together with Dalmatia and Croatia, to France as her so-called Illyrian provinces. This led to the "Illyrian movement" in the thirties under the Slavic enthusiast and author, Louis Gaj, who endeavored to arouse national feeling among all the South Slavs and to inspire them with a sense of their unity and a pride in their language. Slovenian has ever since been cultivated, but as a literary medium seems to be still, in a sense, in the making. The folk literature is said to be rich in lyrics and tales.

But among the Slovenes one nowhere gets the impression of a living, pulsating tradition as one does among the Slovaks, the Little Russians, or the Croatsians. This may be mainly because the national costume has largely passed away. Certainly the people appear much more assimilated to the German, and so to the general European type.

Where the Slovenians Dwell.

The Slovenian population is massed in a fairly well-rounded region, but is cut through by ethnically irrelevant political boundaries. 1,192,780 live in Austria, a small group are in Italy to the west of these, and a larger number in Croatia to the east. The only estimates I have seen for these are 50,000 and 90,000, respectively.

In Austria they practically occupy Carniola, where (if we leave out the old German colony of Gottschee, which for six hundred years has clung to its nationality in the midst of its Slovenian neighbors) 97 per cent. of the population speak Slovenian. Nearly 40 per cent. of the Slovenians are in this crownland. The rest are in southern Styria, southern Carinthian, in Goricia-Gradisca, northern Istria, and in and about Trieste.

It is noticeable, especially in Styria, how often cities in the middle of Slovenian districts are mainly German. For instance, in the city of Cilli the Slovenians are only 23 per cent. to the Germans' 77, while in the surrounding judicial district they are 97.

This relation of city and country is a very general one in states where Slavs are confronted with German, Italian or even Hungarian elements. They may flock as laborers to commercial and industrial centers, like Vienna, Fiume or Budapest, but they are preponderantly country folk.

Laibach is, however, an example of a city of Slavs. Of its 35,000 inhabitants more than eight out of ten speak Slovenian. This beautiful city, with its vistas crowned by a snow-capped Alpine range, is indeed not only the capital of Carniola, but unofficially the capital of the Slovenian nationality.

In places where there is a strong minority of Slovenians, as in Trieste, they make strong efforts to come to the top and everywhere where there is contact there is considerable friction. The Germans are prone to carry things with a high hand, the Italians are equally trying, and where the Slavs get into the saddle they are complained of in turn. So much good energy is wasted in Austria in this national jarring!

Most of the country where the Slovenians live is mountainous—from the very beautiful Alps of Styria, Carinthia and upper Carniola to the Uskok mountains on the Croatian border and on the west to Monte Maggiore in Istria, which gives Abbazia the shelter that makes it an all-the-year-round resort for pleasure and health.

Not only is it mountainous but much of it is karst or limestone waste. To one who has first seen what karst can be in

Croatia and along the Dalmatian coast, and worst of all in Montenegro, the karst here seems a mild affair. Yet it gives Carniola its most famous feature in the Adelsberg grotto.

Of course, neither mountains nor karst bode any good to agriculture and of manufacturing there is little or none in the districts most affected by emigration. Of late years the iron industry of the Alpine districts has declined, leading to an exodus of miners to America and still more to the Westphalian district of Germany. But so far as I could learn there is no considerable movement to America from Carinthia or Styria. Floods in the narrow Alpine valleys, like that of 1903 in the Canal Thal of Carinthia, and other local causes, lead men to emigrate, but these are individual cases.

From Goricia-Gradisca the Slovenians do not seem to emigrate, though the Italians from the malarial and pellagra-smitten coast stretches do so to some extent.

Emigration from Carniola.

It is only from Carniola that there is any noteworthy current to America. This attracted local attention in 1893, when it already had a few years' start, on account of the remittances sent home by emigrants, and the governor of Carniola ordered an investigation through the post office. The figures, continued since this time, have considerable interest, as our own immigration reports merge the Slovenians with the Croats.¹

The districts most affected seem to be Littai, in Upper Carniola, Gottschee, the German district already spoken of, and especially Chernembl, on the Croation boundary, each of which lost over 12 per cent. of its population in the decade 1890-1900.

This latter district was largely in vineyards and was hard hit by the phylloxera. The people, I was told, were used to good living, and instead of retrenching

¹They show in twelve and a half years, ending with the end of 1904, 28,882 persons emigrated to North America and 1,673 to South America. Of these 18,345 were unmarried, 9,322 were married, 591 were wives, 2,280 children. The large proportion of the unmarried and the small number who sold their property before leaving (135 sold and 5,999 did not sell) indicate emigration of the transient type. This is borne out by the fact that the reason for going in 25,566 cases, is stated to be "hope of earning more."

when the blow fell, ran into debt and emigrated in consequence.

Some places had depended in part on local house industries, wooden wares and pottery, which the people made and hawked about. This was cut into by modern conditions, especially by regulations made in the interests of shopkeepers to restrict peddling. The decline of this source of income was another cause of emigration.

Village Life.

Three days spent in driving through the Gottschee and Chernembl districts gave us a chance to see the home villages of the people and to talk with local officials and returned immigrants. On the whole it seemed a fairly prosperous countryside. Among the sharpest impressions are the village where we waited to bait our horses, with its houses about the duck pond, with grapevines on their stuccoed walls, its big church, and women in long sleeveless coats, such as one sees in Dalmatia (the only bit of costume I saw here) hurrying to mass, the flowery fields, the vineyard slopes as one descends to Chernembl, with the little storehouses for wine shining white on the hillside, the figure of Saint Florian extinguishing a conflagration rudely painted on the houses and apparently taking the place of fire insurance, the wayside shrines at which our driver would interrupt a skeptical discussion of church doctrines to raise his hat.

At Gottschee German gymnastic societies were holding a reunion of a rather provocative kind, and we were lucky to get a night's lodging and a chance to talk with the Bürgermeister. More interesting was a talk with an upholsterer who had returned from Brooklyn for good. Life and work at home he found more *gemütlich*... There was eating and drinking in the middle of the forenoon and again in the afternoon and not such a sense of hurry. In America men are driven on with cursing—which he quoted. The millionaires exploit the workers. A man is used up after a few years, but there is always a young and strong one ready to take his place and they say to him "come on."

This is almost the only note of social criticism that I have heard among emi-

grants and this man, be it remembered, was a German and from a big city in America. But nowhere, it seemed to me, did I hear so often as in Carniola that men returned used up or hurt. Everyone seemed to be struck by it. This is probably because they work in America largely in the most dangerous trades, in mining and iron works especially, but I think it is largely the pace that kills.

Contrasting with the story of the returned upholsterer who found America too strenuous, was the case of another man returned after fourteen years in Cleveland. He stayed only some six weeks, though he had come back meaning to stay longer. He saw so much poverty that he could not stand it. He had given away at least five hundred gulden (\$200) since his return home and was afraid he would give away everything that he had if he stayed. In America he owns houses and a "Gasthaus" (*sc.* saloon) and his wife takes lodgers. If he had not left home, he says, he would be a beggar to-day. When he first went to America he shovelled coal and his wife did washing, but gradually they got on.

And the "Krainers" in America do get on. A man in Mr. Sakser's bank in New York told me that the firm remits at least a million dollars a year, mainly sent home by Slovenians. And this is as near as I can come to telling "what kind of people these Griners are."

Here this long drawn out series of articles on Slavic emigration to America comes to a close. The study on which they are based, while first hand, is necessarily far from exhaustive. Nevertheless, I hope that they may serve to awaken in some readers at least a greater interest in the rich diversity—the likeness in unlikeness—of Slavic life and a desire to come more into contact with the life of our different Slavic fellow citizens. Here or elsewhere I hope later to share what I have been able to learn of their situation in the United States and to discuss what America has and has not offered them and what they have made of the situation in which they have found themselves here.



Where sewing is done for a Chestnut Street shop. The woman was tempted from her dark kitchen, needle and thread in hand, on the promise of a picture of her children.

Sweated Homes in Philadelphia

An Unwholesome Corner of Industry upon which the Law
Has Turned Its Back

Florence Lucas Sanville

Executive Secretary, Consumers' League of Philadelphia

A room may be choked with rubbish or dirt, a water-filled cellar may fill the house with rank odors, the sole light and ventilation may come through a narrow doorway from an adjoining room, but a permit may not legally be withheld unless there exists at the time a case of scarlet fever, diphtheria, or some other reportable disease.

No person, firm, or corporation shall bargain or contract * * * for the manufacture or sale of clothing, wearing apparel, cigars or cigarettes, where the same are to be made in any kitchen, living room, or bed room in any tenement house or dwelling house, except where the persons bargaining, etc., are resident members of the family * * * and who have furnished the person, firm, etc., with whom the contract is to be made, a certificate from the Board of Health, stating that the same is free from any contagious or infectious disease.

In this single, apologetic section (No. 14) of the factory act lies the entire machinery at the disposal of any official department for regulating this class of work in the state of Pennsylvania.

I have seen, on an alley-like street within the dark rooms of one of Philadelphia's four thousand tenement houses, a woman who works for a Chestnut street shop. On my first visit, I found her in her little dark kitchen and bedroom combination, sewing men's trousers with three other women—the surplus garments, in traditional fashion, lying on the soiled mattress of the bed where a dirty little child was comfortably asleep. She had no permit, and showed considerable alarm at my suggestion that she procure one. "You get-ta me in troub. Ma room not-ta nice an' clean. 'Spettore (inspector), he stop-pa ma work!" Prudent woman—she need not have feared, had she but known it. Her standard of what was fitting was more exalted than that of the law which she dreaded! As far as that was concerned, she might work on with impunity.

Half-way down an alley which intersects one of the narrow alley-streets, is a passage-way between two houses, which, traced to the source of its trickling stream of surface drainage, reveals a court of perhaps ten square feet upon which opens six tiny houses filled with Italians of all ages. The day was a warm one, and the court had been turned into an out-of-door work shop by the women of four of the houses who had piled the paving with the ubiquitous trousers. Two of the women had permits. On a similar street, in the dark kitchen of a filthy little house, an Italian woman was nursing her baby, and finishing trousers for ready-made wear. The workroom, I was informed, was "all over the house," and the permit, which was presented to me with much pride, had been issued for a former residence.

It thus happens that with a population of the first-class, with a much-vaunted manufacturing supremacy and all its attendant benefits and ills—and with foreign quarters of no mean proportions, Philadelphia alone of the four great cities of the Union, is to-day practically devoid of any provision for the oversight of her home work-shops. And no one is more surprised to hear of this state of affairs than is a Philadelphian!

The creation of this condition of affairs is an interesting example of backward legislation. One year ago last April, Pennsylvania possessed a comparatively adequate law known as the "work shop act of 1901." There were provisions for registering with employers the names of all people contracting for work to be done outside the shop; for the posting of licenses, proper inspection of premises, confiscation of goods under certain conditions, and other requirements such as are found in the laws of Massachusetts, New York, and Illinois. With the passage of the factory act of 1905,



Returned to school from work in a home workshop.

however, all these regulations were swept away, and the above attenuated paragraph was substituted for the demolished provisions.

It was at the wish of the chief factory inspector of Pennsylvania that the burden of caring for this uncomfortable corner of industry was shifted from his department to the local Bureau of Health, but in planning the transfer, he considerably gave the already overtaxed local bureau practically nothing to enforce. Inspector Delaney's convictions are apparent in the following quotation from his *Report* of 1903, p. vi:

An analysis of the inspections of workshops, commonly called "sweatshops" does

not indicate that these shops are a menace to the health and safety of those employed therein or to the public. No complaint of infectious or contagious disease existing in any of these shops has been reported to this department and but few cases have been called to its attention where the dimensions of the work room were inadequate for the number of persons employed.

That employes in "sweatshops" so called, should be protected by laws in the matter of sanitary provisions for their health and safety as well as for the health and safety of the public, is not open to serious objection. But why any woman should be compelled by law to submit to the indignity of having her private apartments invaded and scrutinized, and her means of gaining a livelihood be subjected to the whim or caprice of an inspector is the reverse of obvious. * * * As a permit cannot be legally granted without an invasion and inspection of her domicile, and as it could be made a matter of bargain by a corrupt inspector, the intolerable features and infamous possibilities of the present legal provisions are not fanciful but real.

In the report for the following year, 1904, Mr. Delaney reiterated his convictions, and, further, suggested a radical change in the then existing workshop law. And now that his suggestion has been embodied in the present apology for a law, quoted, what situation have we in Philadelphia?

When the jurisdiction over workshops in dwelling and tenement houses was passed over to the local bureau, there was—strange though it may seem—no transfer of records from the state to the city department. In fact, as far as I can ascertain, there were no records to transfer; for when I made inquiry concerning them of the chief factory inspector at Harrisburg a few weeks ago I was told that "the only list of work shops on record is in the report for 1902. Later than that there is nothing listed"! This report for 1902 shows 3,568 workshops inspected. The board of health, from June, 1905, to June, 1906, granted 2550 permits—a hiatus of 1018, which is, however, reduced to only 643, when the "permits refused" are taken into account. But who is there to tell whether the work shops now on record on the local bureau's file are part of those which were formerly on record in the factory department, or whether they represent an entirely new collection? I am con-



Where the work room is "all over the house."

vinced, from personal inquiry, that a large proportion of these permits have been granted this year for the first time by any department. So the gap between the records of the two departments probably runs well up into the thousands.

What then has become of those other lost hundreds of tenement work shops of which no record has been kept, no human being may tell. They will probably keep their old factory permits posted until these become illegible from age. No inspector knows of them to molest them; and the larger employer, not being responsible for the places to which

he sends his goods, is not likely to disturb himself to require a new permit. This difference between the records of the two departments is graphically emphasized by the statement of a medical inspector, who compares about 100 work shops which he has now on record in his district, with 500 that were formerly on the file of the factory department. It is interesting to conjecture what may, in course of time, happen to the lost 450!

To balance the gap in this part of the situation, a curious overlapping of duties takes place in another direction. "What is no man's business is every man's business"—the old saw is inverted but true.

The meager powers granted the Board of Health by section 14 of the new act, are to be used only in cases where work is done "in bedrooms, kitchens, and living rooms." Section 15, which contains the final word on the whole home and sweatshop question, expressly limits the factory inspector to work shops "not part of a tenement or dwelling house." This leaves out altogether that very large class of workers who gather in groups of from three to twelve in rooms which are part of a living apartment, but which are usually devoted wholly to the needs of the workers. The family of the "boss," it is true, often gathers sociably in the crowded room, and the smallest baby often is comfortably enthroned among the soft garments on the work-table. But it is scarcely to be classed as a "living room" on this account; and it seems legally to be no one's business. As it happens, I have

found permits issued during the past year, sometimes by one department, sometimes by the other, and too often, alas, by neither.

Optimists may dispute with conviction, that there is need of better regulations for supervising home work shops in Philadelphia. A glance at the report of housing conditions in Philadelphia issued by the Octavia Hill Association in 1904 indicates otherwise. To quote from page 19,

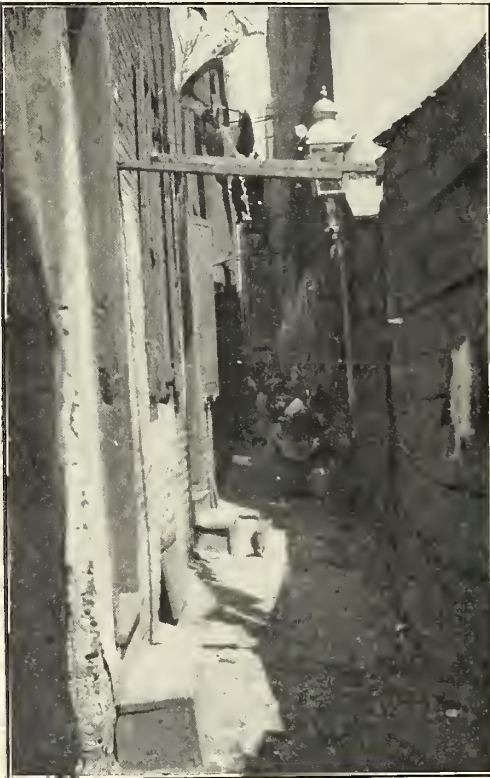
In spite of the rows of one-family houses, overcrowding of living rooms exists to a startling extent in certain sections of the city. In the Italian district more than one family in every four, almost one in three, had but one room for kitchen, dining room and bed room. One hundred and four single room "housekeeping apartments" were found in this one block. In the other district they were found in smaller numbers. Of all the families, 137, or about one-sixth, lived in one room apartments. Five instances were met in which as many as seven persons of all ages and both sexes slept in one room which served as kitchen as well; in six other one-room apartment there were six occupants each; in thirteen, five each; and in twenty-seven, four each. It is difficult to imagine what this means without having seen life under such conditions.

From another paragraph,

No less than 39 per cent of the apartments were tenanted by two or more persons to a room; in Chicago, in the six blocks for which the figures are given, it was 24.3. In the houses inspected here the average number of persons per room for all apartments was 1.47; in the Chicago investigation it was 1.28.

When it is considered that this report concerns the very district where home work is carried on to the greatest extent, our complacency in Philadelphia's superior conditions may well be disturbed. Out of 600 houses inspected during the investigation, of which the report just quoted is the result, sixty-four, or over 10 per cent, contained families carrying on work for outside custom.

The need for adequate regulation of tenement and home work rooms, is being further brought out by an investigation now under way by the Consumers' League of Philadelphia. It is still in too early a stage to present definite results; but it is all the more significant that cer-



The alley back of the tenement shown in the large picture.



From a fashionable tailor shop to the tenement.

tain facts are so clearly indicated even now, when only about fifty complete inspections have been made.

It should be stated at the outset that I have used as a guide in my investigations, the record on file in the Bureau of Health, which the chief medical inspector kindly placed at my disposal. Naturally, therefore, a large majority of the places visited so far have received permits from the bureau; any outside of this list I have either happened to come upon, or have been referred to by neighbors. And yet, notwithstanding the disproportionately small number of such chance visits when compared to those from the list compiled at the bureau, I have found in the fifty work places visited that twenty-three had permits issued by the local bureau, fourteen had permits issued by the factory inspector, and thirteen had never possessed permits of any description. Further, of those permits issued by the factory inspector, six were from two to six years old; two were issued for houses formerly occupied by the worker; and three had been illegally granted by factory inspectors since the passage of the new act. That leaves three of the fac-

tory permits of any value, *i. e.*, indicating legal inspection within a year. So that, in this meager little investigation of fifty places, twenty-four have been found working without even such slight protection as the present law affords!

Of how much use is this farce of protection? The additional burden placed on the local bureau has carried with it no additional appropriation or machinery. The already overburdened shoulders of the medical inspectors are apparently supposed to broaden automatically to receive this new charge. One inspector, whose district is the banner ward for the sweated trades, has a population, almost wholly foreign, of 35,000 to care for, with the incidental duties of visiting all terminated cases, disinfecting premises, etc. He also has nine schools to visit daily for the treatment of the children, and all the applications for work permits to investigate among the countless alleys and courts that criss-cross the ward. Even were it expected of him to look into the general conditions of a house before granting a permit, it is difficult to see how one man could cover the ground. It has happened, however, in some cases where the condi-

tions were so glaringly unsanitary as to appear on even the most cursory inspection, that an inspector has wisely overstepped the authority granted him by law, and has refused a permit. The woeful inadequacy of a law that no longer requires any standard of cleanliness in these home work-shops has been made painfully apparent even in the comparatively limited investigation

vicious to need more than mention. But even where a permit has been issued by the bureau, the safe-guards are not adequate.

The bureau's excellent method of notifying all employers of the existence of contagious disease among the families of any of their employes and prohibiting their employment, is not always workable here. The home work-



Behind the door the mother finishes trousers at eight cents per pair. By fourteen hours' work she makes forty-eight cents a day.

which I have made. Fully one-half the places which I have examined would under proper regulations require changes of one sort or another before work could be rightly taken home.

The single charge that law enjoins upon the bureau of health—that of protecting the public from contagion through tenement made garments—cannot in the present situation be properly fulfilled. Among the uncounted workers who are to-day taking home work without a permit, the danger is too ob-

ers often cannot give the names and addresses of their "bosses," (about one-third of those whom I have visited were unable to do so). Just as often, they give an incorrect address, and the well-intentioned notice can never reach its destination. Until each employer is required to register with the bureau of health the names and addresses of all people taking work out of his shop into their homes, so that each case of contagious disease reported to the bureau may first be re-

ferred to this list, this important function of the department cannot be properly performed. And until then, it will always be possible for just such alarming instances to happen as occurred last November, when a man interested in the situation traced an armful of men's coats from the establishment of a fashionable tailor to the home of an Italian worker, whence a child in the later stage of scarlet fever was removed to the hospital a half-hour after the garments had been carried into the house.

A serious evil is the premium which the present law sets upon the continuance of illegal child labor. In seven cases have I found children working—always illegally. But as section 15 of the factory act expressly debar factory inspectors from visiting any shop that is part of a dwelling, and since the medical inspectors have no jurisdiction over, or interest in this phase of the situation, the children are allowed to remain, without interference, at their unlimited hours of work. The eleven-year old boy and his little sister, of the accompanying photograph, whom I found working at a home shop on South Twelfth street, and who have since fortunately been returned to school where I photographed them, through the co-operation of Mr. Nearing, Secretary of the Pennsylvania Child Labor Committee, have been re-placed by another eleven-year old boy, imported from Italy in April for the express purpose which he is now fulfilling in this shop. A few weeks ago, he was found there by a probation officer, who watched the child sewing at the rate of fourteen rows of handstitching in an hour. It is interesting to note that this same sewing is done for a tailor on Walnut street, who probably holds the palm in Philadelphia alike for reputation and price.

There are two direct methods of deal-

ing with the situation. The man who pays out a lordly sum at this Walnut street shop can suggest with much propriety and effect that, instead of having his clothes sent to South Twelfth street to be finished by imported child labor, and used incidentally as a comfortable seat for the not over-clean baby of the family, he prefers knowing that they are made in properly supervised work rooms on the premises—an especially reasonable request in this particular case, as there happen at present to be numerous unused rooms in the building. The efficacy of this method is indicated by the fact that a large department store recently advertised in the evening papers its "non-sweatshop made, ready-to-wear, clothing," and the advantages thereof. By a curious stroke of irony, I had that same day visited a veritable sweat-shop in Monroe street which was getting out clothing for this store; and the week previous, I had happened upon a little home work shop on Montrose street, where three men and two boys were busily sewing for the same store. In spite of these irregularities, the advertisement in itself was a concession to the power of public opinion.

The second and more obvious method is the return upon the statute book of an adequate law, with proper means for its enforcement. The local Bureau of Health has prior and what it naturally considers more important, duties and interests, and at best can give this new duty but passing attention. Let the factory department see to it that any "corrupt inspector," such as is feared by its present chief, is promptly dismissed; and then assume the entire task for which it was created—the proper regulation of all premises where goods and commodities are manufactured for sale.

Some Observations on Tuberculosis by a Dweller in the Desert

Mark A. Rodgers, M. D.

Tucson, Arizona

The inability of the scientific world to discover a specific cure for tuberculosis has produced, in regard to the disease, many peculiar psychological conditions in the minds of both the medical profession and the laity. Some of the world's profoundest students have plodded a lifetime in futile experimentation and research. The most brilliant minds have sought the remedy in every conceivable riot of imagination. The minds of great men have vainly pondered on it for decades. Much has been accomplished. The pathology and bacteriology of the disease have been mastered; thousands of lives are being saved by management of the cases and prophylaxis bids fair to stamp the disease out in time.

But while prophylaxis may in time rid us of the disease, that is a matter of very minor consideration to the great army of people who are now afflicted with it and with the yet larger hosts who are daily contracting it and who will continue to contract it for decades to come. One can almost imagine after reading a clever article on prophylaxis by a new and enthusiastic celebrity in the world of tuberculosis, that the fight is as good as won. We are told that all we have to do is to avoid the deadly tubercle bacillus and badly ventilated rooms and consult a doctor promptly when we get a cough. This is the most recent phase of many peculiar psychological ones which we maintain present themselves in relation to tuberculosis.

In the matter of treatment, it is a disease of fads. There are many fads in medicine. Each year sees several new ones in nearly every department of medicine and surgery. The men who are progressive adopt the latest one and pursue it assiduously for a time. A man need not be old in the medical profession to remember the treatment of pulmonary tuberculosis by rectal injections

of sulphuretted hydrogen gas; the treatment by Koch lymph; the climatic treatment; the open air treatment; the ozone among the pines treatment; creosote, guaiacol, cod-liver oil, X-Ray, Christian science, osteopathy and what-not. Charlatans thrive on treatments for tuberculosis, and after all, what real difference is there so far as results are concerned, between the methods of the osteopathist and injections of sulphuretted hydrogen gas into the intestinal tube? Certainly another psychological phase.

After all has been said and done, however, we have gleaned some apparently real facts. That is to say, we have thrown out a lot of rubbish and decided to resort to common sense and this we may safely say is summed up in prophylaxis, for those who have not as yet contracted the disease, *and fresh air, food and rest* for those who have.

The reaction which has followed the arid climatic treatment for tuberculosis, is another of those peculiar phases in the psychology of this study. We are told that climate is no longer an important factor in the consideration of treatment. One health officer in a large eastern city gravely declared in an article which he read before a medical society, that so many consumptives had gone to the towns in the arid regions, that practically all those localities were infected and dangerous. Poor fellow! Houses there may be which are infected, both in his city and here; but to infect the locality would be as difficult as to infect a ray of the sun.

It is the object of this paper to deal first with the advantages of the arid climate in the prevention of tuberculosis and second, with the advantages of this climate in the treatment of tuberculosis; but more particularly to point out which cases should come to this country and which should not and to enter a plea for the donation of a large sum of



A community of tents.

money for the creation and maintenance of an institution for the care of a certain class of tubercular cases.

Prophylaxis. If all the consumptives were isolated as fast as they developed, we would still have with us typhoid fever, pneumonia, pleurisy, grip, malaria, measles, whooping cough, scarlet fever, diphtheria and the bearing of children by women. After an experience in the desert, extending over eleven years, with observations on several thousand cases of tuberculosis, including probably every known form of the disease, the writer asserts, from a careful analysis of the cases, that a large percentage of consumptives develop the condition during convalescence from one of the above diseases, and in the case of women during gestation. He has endeavored to emphasize these facts in previous communications and takes this opportunity of again calling attention thereto; and he desires to impress upon the members of the medical profession; and upon all people who wish to aid in the fight against the ravages of tuberculosis; and upon those who are convalescing from any of the above diseases, or who have those who are dear to them convalescing from these dis-

eases, the very beneficial effect of the arid climate on these conditions. Many thousands of consumptives could be normal and healthy members of society if they had come to the desert for one or two winters following a severe illness. Many a young man or young woman could successfully pursue a collegiate course in the University of Arizona, when study has to be given up in the North or East. Many a poor woman; dragged to dangerously lowered vitality by the lactation of an infant could regain health and strength in the dry and sterile air of the desert.

But more beneficial than to any of these, is the effect of the climate on children. While in the cold countries they are housed and bundled up during the long winter months to emerge in the spring pale and sickly; in the lower altitudes of Arizona they play in the open air without wraps, day after day in the warm sunshine, and grow to be lusty and well. Poorly nourished weaklings become red cheeked and boisterous youngsters who play in the sand, ride burros and devour their food with gusto.

The death rate among children in southern Arizona is surprisingly low. There is some considerable mortality

among the children of the Mexican and Indian population, but among the American children, aside from an occasional very young infant or from accidents or a very occasional tubercular child brought in from the outside, the death rate is practically nil. In eleven years the writer has only known of two deaths from scarlet fever (one being a man of 33 years); and for several years he has known of no deaths from diphtheria, nor in fact from any of the contagious diseases of childhood. All the diseases of childhood are at times prevalent but the form of disease is invariably mild

no matter what the children are suffering from, this is the place for them. Moreover, the parents though poor, can almost without exception make a good living in this country, labor (except of the pick and shovel variety) being in good demand and well paid.

**Climatic
Treatment of
Tuberculosis.**

We read now-a-days that climate is no longer a necessary factor in the treatment of tuberculosis. Well known authorities have recently said so. One at least has said that he did not even consider it a very important factor. We



A typical "lunger" tent.

in the extreme. It is the climate *par excellence* for children. They grow to be strong and large and healthy men and women almost invariably exceeding their parents (the emigrants) in stature and general physical development. Children show more markedly the beneficial effects of the climate than any other class of patients. Let me impress upon the reader again that in the convalescence from disease, during which time the implantation of tuberculosis is particularly apt to occur, the dry, sterile invigorating air of the desert is particularly beneficial to children. But

cannot agree with these men. While we do not desire under any circumstances to induce a single individual to come to the arid country unless there are possibilities of his deriving benefit therefrom, we are compelled from experience to maintain in contravention to the assertions of these gentlemen that climate is a very necessary factor in the treatment of tuberculosis and in many cases is an imperative necessity.

The great difficulty has been and is yet, to a certain extent, that cases are sent into the desert in an unintelligent manner. The writer has written this so

often, and published it in so many journals, that he wonders some few members of the medical profession have not observed it. So far as he is aware, the publication of this information has attracted practically no attention. It is repeated here with emphasis in the hope that some few misinformed sufferers may see and know. For example a patient suffering from tuberculosis is told "to go to Arizona or New Mexico." No information is given them as to seasons or altitudes. Nothing is said about accommodations. They are often told to "go down there and get on a ranch somewhere." They are sent to such places as Gallup in New Mexico, at an altitude of over 6,000 feet above the sea, in the dead of winter, when there is probably a foot or two of snow on the ground and the temperature ten degrees below zero, and told to live out of doors. Or what probably kills them a little quicker, they are sent to Tucson or Phoenix in June when the thermometer is registering 110 or 115 or even higher in the shade, with instructions to get a tent and go out on the desert to rough it. One individual had instructions to take sun baths and in consequence, for several hours each day was walking around on the race track in the broiling sun, with nothing in the way of garments but a breech clout.

As elsewhere, the tubercular patients who come to the desert must rest. This "factor" in the treatment of tuberculosis is not by any means as widely known as it should be. Nearly all the patients who come to the arid country, think they should "exercise." In consequence they do themselves the very greatest injury. And in this particular also the physician who sends them is often to blame. Nearly all the patients have a family physician at home, back in Podunk, who is just about the only real thing in the way of a family physician. Most of the patients think you have heard of him. They are surprised if you have not. He sends them, and with them comes Aunt Matilde and brother John; also several large bottles of medicines—creosote, guaiacol, cod-liver oil, tablets, digestive ferments, cough mix-

tures and the like, with elaborate instructions about extensive rides horse-back and minute directions for treatment under all conceivable contingencies. Primarily, however, they are to exercise. The local physician is often only consulted after irreparable injury has been done.

The patients should all be taught that rest—absolute—in the vast majority of cases is imperative, and local physicians who send the cases, should consult the medical directory and advise their patients to consult reputable medical men immediately upon their arrival. There are many things which the home doctor cannot properly advise them about. The altitude may not be suitable. The case may be a running fever, etc. But more important than all is the advice as to management.

The three great advantages of the arid climate are:

(1) The dry invigorating sterile quality, which acts as a tonic.

(2) The fact that the open air treatment can be carried on without interruption during the entire winter and with comfort to the patient.

(3) The almost continuous bright sunshine, which besides being curative is conducive to cheerfulness and hopefulness.

**Who Should
Be Sent Into
the Desert?**

Among those who should not be sent to the arid country are:

(1) *All forms of tubercular throat affections.* Hundreds of individuals with tubercular laryngitis come to Arizona every year and not one in a thousand recovers. The popular impression that throat affections are not serious, should be combatted. The patients believe that the infection begins in the throat or upper air passages and "works down" until the lungs are involved. They should be taught that the reverse is invariably the case and their friends should be informed that the involvement of the larynx, except in the rarest instances, indicates a rapid and fatal termination of the disease. These cases do not do well in the arid country. The dry air irritates the upper air passages



"Bugville"; a tuberculosis community north of Tucson.



Cottages with porches arranged for a constant out door life.



Cottages built for the use of tubercular persons.

and often makes them worse. If they are sent anywhere it should be to a warm, moist country. Here, we are obliged to spray their throats with steam and oil.

(2) No patient should come here who has not sufficient means to live in comfort without work. An early incipient case might recover and become well and strong enough after a year or two to engage in some light pursuit, but they should never be obliged to work until there has been a very considerable lapse of time after they are pronounced cured by a competent physician. Nor should they come with any idea that they can assist in their own maintenance, and there should be complete freedom from the anxieties and worries attendant upon the struggle for existence. They are all far better off at home unless these conditions exist.

(3) *Only the incipient cases recover.* But if there is freedom from financial worry the length of life of the more advanced cases is greatly prolonged in the desert and the exceptional case which proves the rule occasionally presents itself. Some of these cases make surprising recoveries and others live for many years in comparative comfort. Some are even able to work. Practically all live in much greater comfort than those who remain in the damp, cold climates.

It is the firm belief of the writer that the incipient cases of tuberculosis will all do much better in this country than they will anywhere else, provided they are free from financial worry and are not obliged to work to support themselves. They should all be instructed, however, to consult reputable and qualified physicians immediately upon their arrival, and to allow themselves to be guided by their advice. They should be instructed to avoid so-called treatments and cures and the medical men who exploit them. If the patients have not been referred to some physician by their home doctor, they should make inquiry at the banks or similar institutions, which know the responsibility of the men in their communities, and will steer

them clear of the fakes and grafters who infest all health resorts.

But no matter how fine the climate, very little can be done for the tubercular patient if he be not carefully nursed. The tubercular patient is ill. He is, during the active stage of the disease, as much in need of nursing and careful feeding as is a patient suffering from typhoid fever. He needs the care and kindness and sympathy which can only be given by trained, gentle, skillful women. Even if it is to be the out door treatment, he needs proper housing in any country and in all climates. He needs baths and facilities for recreation. In short he needs the sanatorium.

If those philanthropists who have millions to give for good purposes could see the hundreds and hundreds of deserving young men and young women who come to this country, seeking to regain their health and could observe their pitiable plight, I am sure adequate funds would be forthcoming.

Young women, often hardly more than children, who have broken down from overwork in offices or shops, come here by themselves, thousands of miles from their homes and friends, and try to earn their own living. I have known mere boys to be working hard up to within a few days of their death. The *mesas* are dotted with tents and shacks where the poor creatures, living skeletons, do their own cooking and laundry. The sight is pitiable in the extreme; often revolting. But they will continue to come and in increasing numbers, for in spite of all these terrible conditions and hardships, a sufficiently large percentage recover to make it worth the trial and they know it. The people in the towns do what they can to help them, but their efforts are insignificant. No greater charity could be imagined than the donation of a sum of money for the establishment and maintenance of a large sanatorium for the use of these plague-ridden creatures.

For those who have means, the tale is different. They can get as good comforts and care here as anywhere and hundreds know from experience that they can live nowhere else.



Remarks on Education in the Philippines

Elsie Clews Parsons

Mrs. Parsons visited the Philippines with Secretary Taft's party in 1905. She was for several years a lecturer in sociology at Barnard College. Her writings have the practical background of an officer of the College Settlements Association and of a leader in various lines of philanthropic and social work. She has been engaged in New York local school-board service since 1900.

Opposition to *caciquism* is an essential part of the McKinley-Taft Philippine policy. *Caciquism* in the Philippines is an undeveloped, bastard form of feudalism. When the Spaniards arrived in the Islands, the spirit of feudalism was more or less embryonic. Under Spanish rule it naturally failed of a normal chance of development, and *caciquism* or Philippine bossism is the result. Secretary Taft very wisely argues that as long as there is, as the Filipinos themselves admit, a five per cent. fit-to-govern class and a ninety-five per cent. only-fit-to-be-governed class, the people are not ripe for self-government in the American sense. Democracy, however prone it may be to bossism whenever popular elements are heterogeneous, whether in our cities of immigrants or in the tribal *pot pourri* of the Philippines, must in the

last resort, if it is to justify itself at all, be a government by public opinion. The building up of public opinion through the education of the *tao*, the man with the hoe, the development of a spirit of political individualism, is then the aim of our American-Philippine idealists.

It is a bold undertaking; for the hot-house forcing of a people's growth is without successful precedent. During a recent very brief stay in the Philippines the extreme uncertainty of our social experiment was perhaps brought home to me in no way more striking than in the lack of industrial training and the attempted universal use of English in the elementary schools.

As the keystone of the nationalizing process we are attempting, English has been made the exclusive school language. Differences of speech stand of course in

the way of a national spirit, and the adoption of English as a common tongue may be from this point of view desirable. Is it under present conditions possible and is it even desirable if it precludes, as it seems to me to do now, not only the inclusion of industrial education but every other subject of education in the school curriculum?

Is it possible? There are at present less than 800 American teachers in the Islands and every year as native graduates from the normal schools increase this number will decrease. As far as I could learn from several visits to the primary schools in Manila there was not a single American teacher present. There are five American supervisors for these schools, each supervisor having from five to eight schools under his or her charge. The other American teachers in Manila are assigned to the so-called intermediate schools and to the normal and technical schools. At Calapan, the capital of Mindoro, I found that one American teacher and her American assistant supervised the eight barrio (village) native-taught schools under her jurisdiction. I presume there is the same scattering of American teachers throughout the Islands.

In the Manila primary schools and in the barrio school whose teacher and pupils appear in the accompanying picture I found the ability of the native teachers to speak English as a rule extremely limited. They were non-plussed by the simplest grammatical constructions, their vocabularies were meager, to say the least, and their pronunciation was in some cases almost incomprehensible. The chief task of the American supervisor is to give the teachers of the district a normal afternoon lesson in order to prepare them for the lesson they are to teach the following day. Under these conditions it will be seen that teaching and learning English is a struggle for both teachers and pupils. It is obvious why it must preclude the proper teaching of any other subject. For lack of time and equipment and more than all for lack of proper appreciation of its value, almost all kinds of hand-work are omitted from the curriculum of

both primary and intermediate schools except in the kindergartens. Studies like geography, nature study, etc., become in the primary school nothing more than the single formal study of English.

If English is to become the common language, there must be a great many more American teachers in the Islands for several years to come. If the schools are to be really educational and American teachers are to remain as few as at present, then English should not be the school language. Let it be taught as a special study and let the other subjects be taught in the prevailing dialect. Otherwise, and here I come to the point of my story, present educational efforts are likely to promote, instead of to counteract bossism, to foster the very spirit we aim to suppress. Under present conditions mastery of English, not general mental ability or development of character, is going to be the key to local office and leadership. The ready English talker of the town will have the prestige of being the educated man. In view of the facts that the primary school course is a three years' course (it not uncommonly takes from four to six years), that the English learned in it is so meager that it will not be spoken to any extent out of school and will therefore be readily forgotten, and that the graduates of the intermediate and special schools are naturally in a small minority, what hope is there that English will become anything but the official language?

Our political idealists have been joyfully pointing out that the Filipino school register has increased within the last year from 300,000 to 500,000. This may be and is, I think, a proof of the native's desire for education; but does it testify at all to the way that desire is being met? If the Filipino treasury is unable to meet it, why should not the United States treasury aid?¹

¹Since writing the foregoing on my return from the Philippines, I have read Prof. Willis' suggestive book on *Our Philippine Problem*. He considers it "a piece of great folly to attempt the instruction of the mass of the people in English," and that as I have said, the attempt precludes them from getting the necessary elementary training in common school branches (pp. 239, 240). Prof. Willis' view of the character of the American teachers in the Islands should receive grave consideration.

The Settlement Movement

V

Settlement Organization¹

Mary Kingsbury Simkhovitch

Greenwich House, New York

[Greenwich House was founded in 1902 with the organization of the Co-operative Social Settlement Society. The democratic make-up of this society, including upon its board of directors not only members of the household but representation from the tenement dwellers long resident in the neighborhood, has lent singular interest to the development of the undertaking. From Boston University, Mrs. Simkhovitch entered upon post-graduate work at Radcliffe, Berlin University, and then at Columbia. She brought to the headworkship of Greenwich House experience as head-worker of the College Settlement, and the Friendly Aid House, New York. The building at 26 Jones Street, together with a similar old residence adjoining, was purchased last year. Various lines of outside activities, and the residence in the neighborhood of a number of groups identified with the household, have bound the settlement to an increasing section of the lower West Side. Indeed it is as the founder of the Greenwich Village Improvement Society, as the originator of the Association of Neighborhood Workers, and as a person of resource and initiative in social and civic undertakings, liable to multiply herself indefinitely, that Mrs. Simkhovitch has made her work count for most—that led a local political leader last winter to refer to her, at a beef-steak dinner, as "good material for the governorship."—Ed.]

The early settlements, as is commonly known, were groups of people who desired to cast in their lot with that of their neighbors in the crowded quarters of great cities. They were persons, not plants. They had to have houses to live in, of course, of sufficient size to be able to extend their hospitality to others. They themselves paid the expenses incurred, aided by friends who envied them the privileges of their settlement life and who, not being able to share this life in person, desired to contribute towards the maintenance of the group. Those living in the house and their friends who helped them financially had a common point of view and whatever was done was decided upon by the common group of people intensely and vitally interested in the neighborhood life. No question could arise under such circum-

stances as to whose right it was to make important decisions. In fact the time had not come for decisions. It was a constant listening, feeling, learning on the part of the early residents, rather than any campaign for improving the conditions under which their neighbors lived.

This first stage of the settlement was one then primarily of social impressionism. And just as each child is said to repeat to some degree the stages of development of the race, so is it true that each new resident today, entering the settlement, must go through this period of social impressionism. It is also true that to lose the impressionable capacity is to mark the stage of crystallization after which the resident is of no value to the settlement. The capacity of understanding, appreciating and sympathizing with the surrounding life is then the distin-

¹ Previous articles in this series:

- I. March 3—Whither the Settlement Movement Tends. Graham Taylor, *The Commons*, Chicago.
- II. April 7—The Settlements; Their Lost Opportunity. Florence Kelly.
- III. May 5—Education by Permeation. Samuel Barnett, Toynbee Hall, London.
- IV. June 2—The Social Value of the Festival. Rita Teresa Wallach, Nurses Settlement, New York.

guishing mark of the early settlements, of the new resident at all times, and is an essential part of the life of the settlement in all stages.

Let us now trace the development of the settlement from this original homogeneous group and see how the "plant" or institution has grown up, and how simultaneously with this change a different form of management has been developed. The early groups have been accused of sentimentality because the most conspicuous element of that early life was feeling rather than action. A most elementary analysis will, however, disclose the fact, as has been already indicated, that the soaking in of impressions was the most necessary and valuable step. To act without understanding is as unscientific as it is foolish. Let us then be grateful for the identification of the life of the settlement resident with the life of the neighborhood. Without it no true progress would have been possible.

Very soon various needs of the neighborhood began to be perceived, and these the settlement tried to fill. There was little thought of sequence or correlation or ratio of importance, but rather the desire to fill the need perceived. This was practical and genuine. Sewing classes began to be formed, the family bath tub was placed at the neighbors' disposal, the yard was filled with happy children, money was loaned, stories told. All the while the consciousness was developing of the inadequacy of such means of striking at the root of the serious civic, educational, industrial and social problems that opened out in their vastness day by day. But while the residents, conscious of the inadequacy of isolated effort, began to ally themselves with forces already at work and helped to bring others into being, the settlement houses themselves became full of social clubs and educational classes, and the increase of these activities demanded expert supervision and good management. Such expert work meant the necessity for increased expenditure for administration. More money had to be raised than formerly, and money was welcomed from any friendly source whether such contributors were really thoroughly ac-

quainted and hence intelligently in harmony with the work or not. With the development of activities requiring a considerable money expenditure, boards of managers came into being, people who contributed very naturally, desiring to share the responsibilities of the decisions made as to the expenditure of money. Persons, therefore, who may have had no personal knowledge of neighborhood life have become prominently identified with the conduct of settlement affairs. The growth of house activities has at the same time often led to the abandonment of small quarters and to the erection of large buildings where these activities can be developed in an expert way. The institution and its board of managers thus have come largely to supplement the early settlement organization of a group of friends with a family government and life.

The value of the fundamental settlement idea, that of identification of its life with that of the neighborhood, had in the meantime come to appeal not only to individuals, but also to already existing social forces. Charitable societies and especially churches saw the advantage that settlements obtained in being always on the ground and in the establishment of a nearer relationship to facts and people than others enjoyed. Societies and churches hence began to adopt the plan of establishing settlements as agents, frontier posts for charitable or religious work, thus instituting a new sort of mission. Or if no special propaganda were in view, groups of people would get together and decide to set up a settlement and manage it to suit themselves, employing an agent to carry out the orders or general ideas of the group managing the enterprise. It is in such organizations that representatives of organized labor and others have expressed a lack of confidence on the ground that capital by such means can fortify itself right in the country of the enemy by establishing a cordial relationship that will drive out the perception of the real need of the industrial struggle.

Let us examine these forms of settlement life and see if we can discover what pitfalls to avoid or what path to follow.

We cannot fail to notice that the settlements have in their experimentation proved the value of various forms of social improvement which in turn have often been set on their own feet or have been taken over by other agencies. Especially has the growth of municipal activity been very marked during this period. In the largest cities, therefore, one activity after another that the settlement has developed has been taken over by the city itself as in the case of manual training, kindergartens, playgrounds, domestic training, etc. The function of the public school has been greatly enlarged. The departments of health and of parks have recognized claims hitherto not felt.

But while the growth of social activities both on the part of the city, the church, the school, and organized charity has been marked, and while the settlement has fluctuated in its form from that of the simple household group living the life of its neighborhood, to that of the large full-fledged institution with an imposing array of capitalistic managers, the *method* of the settlement has nevertheless been unfolded until we can describe its three stages quite succinctly as (1) social impressionism, (2) interpretation, (3) action. No matter what the form may be, if this time order and logical order be complied with, the settlement is genuine; it is a real settlement and not a mission nor the carrying out of any apriori conviction. Briefly to amplify: The first stage is that of social impressionism, the pouring in of the vivid life about one upon the sensitive and waiting personality. Group impressions then come into existence. A group must get a more varied, a more complex and a truer picture of life than any one individual can hope to obtain. From these group impressions emerge the second stage, that of interpretation. The settlement group has to impart what it knows—not the intimate confidences which belong to one person alone—but it has to tell what it finds of virtue and beauty, of hampered life, of tragic economic conditions. It may tell this in a thousand different ways, by the drama, by stories, by scientific reports, by conversation. Real discoveries cannot be

kept secret. To know anything passionately always develops a propaganda. The news has to be passed on.

The third stage is action. To act on the basis of the knowledge gained is the purpose of the settlement. Without such action the life of the settlement is sterile; it is only an interesting and highly educational life for the residents. Again, as in the case of the second stages there are various ways by which interpretation takes place, so when it comes to positive action there are countless methods by which it can be brought about. It is not in the least essential that the settlement itself shall do the work. Its responsibility is only to see that it gets done. It will depend on the environment in the given case as to which will be the appropriate agency for carrying out the necessary work. In a socially undifferentiated community the settlement itself will doubtless undertake the work and will therefore often by very virtue of its consciousness and efficiency develop extensive institutional features. In a community more highly developed structurally the settlement will tend more and more to slough off its various activities and place the responsibility upon other existing agencies, upon the city, or upon associations especially developed to meet specific needs. In this case the settlement will develop in an initiative and co-operative rather than in an administrative way.

We thus see that the word "institutionalism," a boggy to many, in fact conceals the true issue which is never, "should a settlement be an institution," but rather "should a settlement under these specified conditions be institutional." What a settlement should seek to undertake depends then upon a whole series of other social phenomena. But the underlying method remains the same and we hold the key to the genuineness of the settlement by the test of this method. If it be the simplest group in the tiniest house, or if it be a large group occupying a whole block of imposing buildings with hundreds of activities, *it is in both cases a settlement if whatever action takes place is based on the knowledge gained by the group through its own impressions of the sur-*

rounding life. But no group no matter how small or how great ought to call itself a settlement if it has a preconceived view of what the life of the neighborhood is and what methods ought to be employed to develop the highest possibilities of neighborhood life.

It is exactly here that the relation of boards of managers to the settlement is clearly seen. In so far as managers are themselves so closely identified with the life of the settlement as to become imbued with the impressions there received, they are legitimate managers and proper initiators of policies. It makes no difference whether boards of managers be composed of capitalists, settlement residents, or representatives of the neighborhood itself as long as whoever composes the governing board are in vital touch with the neighborhood life itself or with some portion of it. How that touch is to be brought about is unimportant as long as it actually exists.

In an ideal settlement possibly the management would rest with a group composed of all three elements, the friends who give financial aid, the residents themselves, and interested neighbors. But all that is essential in a real settlement is that the management whatever form it may take, should be vitally impressed by the neighborhood life and should act only in the light of the knowledge gained by actual experience. It is clear that an intelligent neighbor taking a vital interest in neighborhood affairs would be likely to be a valuable member of a board of managers. It is also true that those who raise the major share of the funds necessary for maintenance often have a wider business experience and also

may have a better sense of proportion in expenditure than those who are more personally related to the surrounding life. They may know what to do on the basis of facts more adequately than do those who furnish them the experience. There is nothing sacred in being either a "resident" or a "neighbor." Certain residents and certain neighbors would have no valuable experience on which to base action nor would they know what to do in case they had received vivid and valuable impressions. The part that the household itself should play ought to depend upon length of residence, training and personality, but in any case the enlightened administrator of the settlement policy—the head resident—will welcome the fullest and freest discussion as invaluable in making up those decisions which register the settlement's actual fertility and efficiency.

To sum up, we may have a so-called settlement which is really an agency for a group or society with an avowed policy. Such an organization may be most useful, but it is misnamed, for an agency carrying out orders from without not based on the life of the neighborhood itself, can never be a genuine settlement whose very nature is bound up in its determination to let life, not theory, lead the way. With an open heart and an open mind the settlement faces the social problem. In these centers of influence the revelation as to what can and ought to be done must come from life itself. To reverse this order is to furnish another and a totally different thing, the value of which it is not the function of this paper to indicate.

Social Education in the Public Schools

Howard Woolston

[Mr. Woolston writes from a peculiarly favorable vantage ground—a settlement in the top story of an experimental public school plant in that New York tenement neighborhood which was once the village of Manhattanville. He was a member of the class of '98, Yale, and has since then been a graduate student at Chicago, Harvard and Columbia. He was director of neighborhood work and of school extension, Roxbury (Boston), 1902-3; a student of social questions in London, Paris and Berlin, 1903-4 and director of neighborhood work 1904 to date at Speyer School above referred to, maintained by Teachers' College, Columbia University. He is secretary of the Neighborhood Workers Association of New York City and of the division of education of the American Social Science Association. During the past year he has been making a statistical study of social conditions on the upper west side.]

It is frequently stated that America is engaged in one of the most important political and social experiments the world has ever seen. It is the first state in the family of western nations to found its constitution from the beginning upon the principal of the sovereignty of the people. The great ideals of liberty and equality were exalted from the commencement of our political existence. The general welfare has been made the cornerstone of national prosperity. Indeed, it seems imperative that the integrity and efficiency of the whole body of citizens be assured, in order to maintain and advance our common institutions.

But now certain dangers seem to menace the unity of national life. Every year thousands of people from foreign countries, with very different standards of life and divergent conceptions of personal and public responsibility, are brought to our shores. In the South, over eight millions of people of different race and at a lower stage of civilization, are settled in our midst. Not only is the body politic invaded by alien elements; within our own society we see a growing differentiation of social status. It is an undeniable fact, that within the last quarter of a century there has arisen in this country, what may be termed a "monied class," which holds in its possession the greater part of the wealth of the nation. Over against this body is a growing number of those who are constantly dependent upon capitalistic enterprise for their hope of advancement, and even for

their very existence. These forces of dependent ignorance and selfish power present a serious opposition in the development of a united commonwealth. Bribery and violence are the illegal methods which each feels called upon to use in promoting its claims. The result of such opposition is clearly shown in the corruption of our civic economy. In our great cities the wretched slum with its squalor and vice, and the luxurious boulevards with their more or less vulgar ostentation, are brought into close and violent contrast. Here in the very nerve centers of the nation, there appears the outward sign of an antagonism that is deep and wide.

Those who have seen this growing opposition within our society, have not been slow to suggest remedies. Certain supplementary agencies have been established to lessen the friction. Charitable institutions have been established to aid those who fail in the intensified struggle. It was thought that in this way, the abundance of the rich might supply the need of those less fortunate. But this method of philanthropy has often resulted in establishing a pauper class, confirmed in its uselessness. An advance in charitable method is marked by the so-called preventive measures, which have attempted to supply for the mass of the people, means of recreation and amusement. Where these agencies have been established by private initiative, they have often been dominated by class conceptions of what is good for "the other

half." The organization of parks, playgrounds, baths and similar agencies by the community, marks a decided advance in this respect. But such supplementary agencies do not go to the bottom of the moral opposition that exists within the community itself. We must look rather to the fundamental institutions of our society to secure that spiritual unity that makes a people truly one. For a nation is built only as its people are formed.

There are three main agencies that establish character in the individual and that form his views of his social rights and duties. They are the Home, the Church and the School. To these may be added such instrumentalities as the Press and the Drama, which may become the advocates of any type of social teaching. The most important institutions are doubtless those which more consistently form the individual's view of life. The Home is unquestionably the most important agency for moulding a man's mind and for inculcating those fundamental habits which are the basis of his social life. In many cases, however, there is neither the time nor the ability to give the growing child a comprehensive outlook upon life's relationships. Very often the boy or girl acquires little more than the inheritance of parental prejudice. Only too frequently the Home is vitiated by the misfortune or the misdeeds of the heads of the family. In this case, youthful criminals and paupers may be the result of domestic training or of its lack. Moreover the changing conditions of urban life have loosened and abbreviated the influence of the Home, so that children often obtain the greater part of their social ethics from the happenings of the street or from the miscellaneous instruction of teachers, servants and companions.

The Church is also a powerful agency for fostering the spirit of mutual responsibility and helpfulness. But it must be admitted with regret, that the Church is losing its controlling influence with certain classes of the people. It can only reach those who are willing to come under its ministrations. Besides, the Church has not infrequently contented itself with preaching a doctrine of individual salva-

tion, somewhat apart from the concerns of everyday existence, instead of teaching consistently the principles of conduct involved in the manifold relations of our common lot.

The Press also is a mighty force in shaping and controlling public opinion. But its effects are as various as the number of publications, and as uncertain as the comprehension of the reader. There is nothing necessarily good or bad in the mere scattering of miscellaneous information, such as is the case with our daily newspapers. The selective interest and rational deduction of the reading public must be established before an unmixed good can be expected from the mere multiplication of printed articles.

**The School
as a Social
Agency.**

It seems then, that we must turn to the School, in order to find an agency that can consistently and comprehensively instruct our coming citizens as to the privileges and responsibilities of social life. The School can compel the attendance of every child during the most impressionable years of life, and systematically invite attention to those matters deemed most essential for general understanding. Herein, both because of its catholic scope and of its formative method, we seem to have a powerful instrument for shaping the views and establishing the character of a people. Such has been constantly the aim of the statesmen who have held before them the social significance of a system of public education. The founders of Democracy in France, in England and in America have always dwelt upon the political significance of a system of free public instruction. With every extension of the franchise we see the expansion of educational facilities to meet the needs of the enlarging class of voters. Since the welfare of the nation rests upon the intelligence and virtue of those who control its destinies, it is absolutely essential that those who enter into such responsibilities be informed and trained for the duties they are about to perform. Accordingly, that the great system of popular instruction might be free from perverting and biasing influences, the schools were placed under public super-

vision. In order that they might reach all classes of the people, they were made gratuitous. In order that their ministrations might be effective, attendance was made compulsory for the unformed youth. That their influence might be consistent and progressive, the effort has been to make the system continuous, and finally, in order that their activities may be of value to the varying needs of the people, we have begun to make the schools more flexible and adaptable.

**Social Utiliza-
tion of the
Plant.**

Let us consider this last point, with a view to discovering how the School has been made more useful to the community about it. From the standpoint of economy, it has seemed wasteful to erect, at great cost, a building that can be used for only five hours a day, during five days of the week, for nine or ten months in the year. It would seem that such costly structures as we now feel are demanded as suitable plants for our modern methods of instruction and as fitting monuments for civic enterprise, should yield a larger utility in proportion to the funds invested. Accordingly, the first step was to introduce evening classes, in addition to the regular day work. Courses of instruction for those who have been unable to complete the elementary branches have been established. Special classes for the more ambitious young working men and women who wish to pursue their studies further have been added. Gradually provision for foreigners who wish to study the English language and American institutions has been introduced. And recently, specialized lines of work for those engaged in particular occupations have come in. Thus commercial branches, applied science and manual training have found their places in the evening courses. In the matter of civic and industrial education, we are still far behind the schools of France, Germany and England, where special evening courses are provided for apprentices and working men. School houses have also been thrown open during the summer months to children who have no playground except the hot and crowded city streets. Courses in nature study and manual occupations, supple-

mented by directed play and music have largely taken the place of the regular school work. In these ways the School has been made to yield a larger usefulness. The effect of the widening conception of education has been reflected in the character of the buildings themselves. Greater provision has been made for assemblies and recreation, in the shape of lecture halls and gymnasia. But still the great obstacle to the enlarged use of the school-house remains, in the shape of the fixed desk. A floor space that is encumbered by this immovable and unadaptable form of furniture, is comparatively useless for other purposes than sitting still and listening. Even this form of dissipation is practically impossible for persons who are not of the same stature as those who occupy the place during the day. It would seem that a very simple and desirable substitute for the patent child-compressor would be ordinary tables and chairs, such as are now used in our more advanced institutions.

This matter of the extended use of school-houses, brings us at once to the more recent developments along the lines of public recreation. It has long been seen that the mass of the people need some place for wholesome amusement, indoors as well as out. The settlements first attempted to deal with this problem, by opening rooms in neglected quarters of the city. But the extent of the demand far exceeded such sporadic supply. Public agencies were therefore looked to, and the school-house was chosen as the most available. Accordingly recreation centers, consisting of gymnastic playgrounds, game rooms and meeting places for clubs, were opened. Courses of illustrated lectures on topics of general interest have been instituted. Concerts and even informal dances have been given. Recently the proposition to open the school buildings for Sunday concerts and lectures has been favorably considered. In this respect we are still far behind the German municipalities. Some day we may see the need of having municipal amusement halls for wholesome diversion. The question as to whether public recreation is a proper function for the School, and whether or not we should en-

courage this twofold use of the building, rests upon our conception of the scope of popular education. Perhaps it would be unwise to anticipate such considerations here. Assuming, however, that the primary function of the Public School is to offer instruction and to afford opportunity for personal development, let us see what these additional activities have accomplished toward broadening the conception of the curriculum itself.

**Broadening
of the
Curriculum.**

It was not long ago, that the curriculum of the common schools comprised, in the elementary grades, the three r's, a little history and geography and some outlines of state and national government. The secondary schools added an introduction to the classics, which the colleges carried further and capped with a formal system of philosophy. Within the last half century, the elements of natural science, music and art, as well as some training in manual work and gymnastics, have percolated into the elementary schools. The effect of these additions has doubtless been to give variety and added interest to the instruction. Through domestic science and manual work, some effort has been made to connect the occupations of the School with outside interest. History and geography are now taught with more attention to local and present conditions. Through the establishment of commercial and industrial schools, provision has been made for different types of mind, and a larger field of selection among the occupations has been opened. State and municipal colleges and technical institutions have made continuous progress toward the professions possible for the more talented and ambitious.

The alluring prospect of an educational system always open at the top, is somewhat clouded however, by the appearance of great numbers of boys and girls who constantly drop out to go to work. It is an indisputable fact that about 90 per cent. of the pupils in the public schools leave before the high school stage. Perhaps two-thirds of this number fail to complete the grammar grades. This brings us face to face with the fact

that many of our young people are entering upon the responsibilities of life with an inadequate preparation for their duties. Some special provision must be made for carrying this class beyond the troublesome years of early youth. New York has effected a partial measure by the law that requires boys between fourteen and sixteen years of age, who have not completed the elementary school and who are at work, to attend the evening sessions. This merely aims to spur on the laggards, however. Little attempt has thus far been made by the schools in this country, to assure the progressive development of our young working people. In this respect we may learn much from the English schools for apprentices and from the German *Fortbildungsschulen*, wherein a systematic effort is made to keep the youthful worker intellectually alive, and to furnish him with a knowledge of those subjects that are fundamental in his daily tasks. Responsibility for regular attendance may be laid upon the employer, so that his interest and co-operation are in a measure assured.

In not a few cases it happens that the process of education itself may become a dividing force in the community. It is not rare to find instances among immigrant families, where the adult members have not had the opportunity to master even the elements of learning, not to speak of those subjects necessary for American citizenship. The growing children may obtain a certain mastery of English and a superficial acquaintance with many things that their fathers and mothers do not understand. Such instances suggest the need for systematic education for adults. Of this we have some inkling in the series of public lectures and in the courses for foreigners. More is suggested by outside agencies. Courses in civics, elementary economics and the outlines of English history and literature are certainly desirable for any prospective citizen. A series of talks upon the duties of citizenship for first voters has been given for several years under the auspices of the Old South Church Historical Society of Boston. There is no reason why such a function

should not be assumed and extended through public agencies, and the completion of requirements for intending voters be made the occasion for an impressive civic ceremony. For the intelligent and unbiased discussion of industrial and political questions, the open meetings of Cooper Union, of the Chicago Commons and of the Universités Populaires in Paris might offer valuable suggestions for awakening public interest in social questions. For the diffusion of general culture among the masses of the people, such agencies as the Davidson Society in New York, and the Chautauqua Literary Circle, point the way. Diplomas for progress in similar lines might easily be given by the school authorities, much as Regents' certificates are now granted.

Since the better half of the people are women, we should expect that some provision would be made for them. Because the household arts have been considered woman's peculiar province, courses in domestic science and needlework have been provided. Certain lines, as dressmaking and millinery occasionally attract mature women. But ordinarily the instruction is not of a sort to appeal to actual home makers. The mothers' clubs, so successfully organized by the kindergartens and in connection with settlements, suggest how it might be possible to bring before women topics of wider interest, bearing upon household economy and the management of children.

For the development of more technical lines, the courses of the West Side Y. M. C. A. in New York, in automobilism, real estate, house decoration and the like, offer valuable suggestions toward practical interests. The example of the *Gerwerbeschulen* in Germany and of the *Arts et Métiers* in Paris, show that public agencies can handle such instruction perfectly well. The writer used to attend a class at the latter institution, which met immediately after an hour's demonstration in textiles and weaving. From the difficulty of displacing a serious minded craftsman from my seat for the ensuing period, I inferred that the charts and discussions had taken a real hold on the man. In ways like these, by progressively appealing to wider and more practical

interests, the School may retain its hold upon older pupils, and become helpful to all the members of a household. Thus a common center may be found and a bond of union formed upon a higher plane.

**Is There
Underlying
Unity?**

Here then, are a number of supplementary lines that are finding their place in the schools, under a broadening conception of education. Their variety is bewildering and their suggestive quality immense. But one cannot help wondering, after such an enumeration, just what bearing the multiplication of instruction has upon the regeneration of Democracy. We readily admit that there is a real connection between ignorance, pauperism and crime, inasmuch as a man who is not skilled or intelligent must rely upon hard labor for a livelihood, and this failing, he becomes a tramp or a thief. But intelligence does not always make a man a good citizen. Indeed knowledge may become a tool for grave injury. One cause of this unmoral learning seems to be a tendency of school instruction to become detached from its social background. There is a danger that the schools become formal and technical, no matter what their subject matter. The instruction becomes an end in itself, instead of a means toward larger results. Subjects thus loose their real connections and become fragmentary or one-sided. Too often there is lack of a clear statement of some central principle that gives unity to the system of education and that relates its branches to the life of the learner. Not infrequently individual success, without much regard to social welfare, is tacitly made the criterion. Such success is generally reckoned in terms of money. Our whole national life has thus gained a narrowness due to over-specialization, a tone of intense individualism and a disgusting taint of commercialism. As a striking example of the mercantile bias of our thought, consider the familiar question, "How much is he worth?" The answer is always in terms of money. To a foreigner, this method of estimating a man's value in the figures of his salary or bank account, is almost unintelligible.

The multiplication of remedies for this fundamental defect in our system of education seems to be mere palliation. Such a method reminds one of the story of Ali Muhred and the Fever Plant. Perhaps we may be permitted to refer to it, as "a ray of light from the Orient." Ali Muhred was a physician of the province of Van. This district was visited one spring by a disease that caused the people to break out with malignant sores. The doctors were at their wit's end to find a remedy, until Ali discovered that a common plant would allay the inflammation. At first the physician applied the powdered herb to the ulcers with great success. But, healed in one part, the patient would break out in other spots. Finally, Ali gave one desperately sick man a dose internally. To his delight, the patient recovered and showed no signs of fresh irruption. With the enthusiasm of a discoverer and the bad judgment of an Oriental, Ali revealed his secret. People ate the herb and were cured. The plague lost its terrors, the doctor his practice. "And," the story concludes, "Ali Muhred died at an advanced age, rich in honor though poor in goods."

In the extended use of the school plant, we have apparently discovered an efficient method for alleviating certain ills of the body politic. But in our application of the remedy, it seems as though we were treating local symptoms, instead of seeking for the cause of the distemper. What we need is not so much the lavish extension of social work in the school buildings, as the infusion of a truly social spirit throughout our system of education. In this way we might check certain ills at their source, in the narrow view and unethical attitude of the people, instead of wasting so much effort in salving the spots where eruption threatens. In such reform, not one class, but the whole community is affected. Accordingly it appears that we must more clearly define the aim of our system of education. We must distinguish between mere entertainment, formal drill and really useful training. We must refuse to be led astray by considerations of a short sighted economy or by the pros-

pects of a specious utility. Let us rather determine what is the social function of education, and in the light of this criterion decide what instruction demands a place in our schools, and what teaching may be assigned to some other agency.

**The Infusion
of a Social
Spirit.**

What then is the aim of a national system of education? It is first, to train up a race of vigorous men and women; second, it is to instruct them how to use the forces of nature; and finally, it is to teach them how to conduct themselves toward their fellows. These things are fundamental. All else is surface culture and technique or special edification. It is the social phase that does not seem to have received the systematic attention it deserves. Certainly one great purpose of education is to fit the coming citizen to be an effective and useful member of the community in which he lives. No matter what his talents or opportunities may be, the manner in which he shall exercise his powers and the limits within which he may prosecute his activities, are given by the laws and customs of the social group in which he finds himself. Consequently it would seem essential that for a wise conduct of his life, he should have an understanding of the structure and functions of the fundamental social institutions that must embody his welfare. The science of social laws therefore, and the art of living well with one's fellows, would seem to be as basal in the instruction of the youth as an understanding of the laws of nature and of his own being. By social education is not meant mere acquaintance with the machinery of government; but rather a comprehension of the privileges and responsibilities of domestic, industrial, political and cultural institutions. The material for such instruction is all about us. Methods have been suggested by the programs of the New York schools and in other places.¹

Human activities are matters of natural interest to growing children. How often we see little boys and girls playing

¹ Particularly valuable are the little books of E. Dole of Boston, the articles by Mr. Thurston of the Chicago Normal School, and especially the excellent texts for Civic and Moral Instruction used in the French schools. We should object only to the constant danger of formalism which the too slavish use of such outlines may induce.

house or store or policeman! Why not teach them to play the game thoroughly and thus build a supremely useful kind of instruction upon this spontaneous interest?

It is perfectly possible to begin with children in the lowest grades, and teach them to observe the activities of the people about them. When they have noted the operations of a housewife or of a blacksmith or of a postman, they will then describe what they have seen and compare their account with those of their companions. The teacher can then correct such limited observation from a wider knowledge of homes in other lands and workshops in olden days. In this way, much that is merely local and accidental in form will drop away, and the institution will stand out in its essential lines. Such a method of observation, comparison and generalization is the scientific manner of understanding the laws of social groups. When these have been discovered, it will undoubtedly be seen that every such group rests upon certain qualities in the individual and certain permanent relationships with his fellows. Here then, we have the natural basis for a system of ethics that is both scientific in its method and practical in its outcome.

The natural order in which the different social groups should be taken up, is given by the actual relation which the person bears to them. Thus it is natural to begin with a consideration of the institution that lies closest to the child, and to progress from the home and local industries, outward toward the agencies for municipal control and general culture. This procedure would not teach a boy the details of national government before he is acquainted with the resources of his own community. It would seem much more natural that the child should become acquainted with the social and industrial group in which he may be called upon to play an active part, than to obtain a superficial knowledge of agencies that do not immediately concern him. Thus the social group that affects a boy of fourteen, is not the nation, but his town, with its business and agencies for common service. It

is time enough to instruct a lad of eighteen in national politics. If he reaches college he will study international affairs. In trying to teach too much, we may err in becoming remote from actual need and experience. It is the danger of leaving the child in distant regions if he cannot complete his course, that forms a strong objection to a program based upon the theory of recapitulation. Simplicity is to be gained rather by showing the principles of familiar things, than by trying to realize primitive conditions.

The idea is not so much to add another subject to the already crowded curriculum, however, as to furnish a social principle of correlation, by which the various arts and sciences might be brought into vital relation with the life of the child. For example, the work of a farmer forms a suitable basis for the study of plant and animal life. Manual training can easily be brought into connection with its activities. Even the more formal subjects, such as arithmetic and language, can be naturally related through practical problems and first-hand description. Similarly the occupation of a weaver or of a store-keeper can be used to illustrate useful applications of knowledge. In this way, typical vocations of the locality can be interpreted to children. It is doubtful whether subjects that cannot be thus related are of much immediate or lasting value to a child. In this respect, the experimental school of John Dewey has much of significance. It is scarcely to be doubted that such a principle of unification, if followed consistently in our educational system, would do much to aid our young people in placing themselves intelligently in their social environment, and in playing their part effectively in the social group with which they are brought in contact.

**The Expression
of the Social
Spirit.**

But no amount of observation and instruction as to the structure and function of social groups will necessarily make effective citizens. The perception of the principle of solidarity must lead to its necessary corollary of mutual responsibility. The dry outlines of social

physiology must be enlivened by the spirit of co-operation. Perhaps the most effective inspiration toward social activity is the example of the teacher. Unfortunately, with certain notable exceptions, too many of our public instructors lead detached and abstracted lives. The influence of a personality in active touch with conditions of home and shop and local administration, lends a zest to the study of such matters.

More than this, our young citizens must have an opportunity to show their social spirit, and to exercise their mastery of the principles of self control, by some form of modified self-government. It is almost too much to expect, that persons who have been educated under a system of petty tyranny, will have ability to exercise responsibility. By self-government is not necessarily meant a form of dramatized civics, but rather some form of social control suitable to the situation. Opportunities for actual management and service are furnished by the ordinary activities of the school and in the control of the playground. These miniature democracies can easily be made to illustrate the real principles of corporate righteousness. In this respect, the lesson from the gang-clubs of the settlements is valuable. By winning the confidence of the natural leaders and by placing responsibility upon them, an *esprit de corps* and a degree of self-control has been gained that is both surprising and enlightening. Perhaps no experiment of this sort has demonstrated its beneficial effects as well as the George Junior Republic, where young delinquents learn to respect and sustain each other's rights. In the matter of actual service, the efforts of some of the classes in the Ethical Culture School toward practical philanthropy, and the work of Miss Addam's young street inspectors, offer suggestions, even if the instances do not carry conviction.

This principle of first-hand dealing with the facts of social life, which has been illustrated in the case of the elementary schools, is capable of wider application. It seems to be the principle that is desired in order to arouse vital interest in the continuation work of the

schools. Whenever the School can help a young man or woman to better understand the conditions of his or her trade, whenever it can assist the average citizen to grasp the points at issue in a local campaign, then the School will be sought eagerly as a practical agency for rationalizing the problems of every day life. If it can show our young tradespeople the social background and outcome of their industry, if it can make plain the historic setting of inherited faiths and loyalties, then it will do much to lessen our social atomism and partizanship. In this way, our schools may become as useful to adults as to children. By a progressive course of social education, the schools may become the means of developing that perception of a common goal and of fostering enthusiasm for its attainment, which is the real basis of national unity. By acting as a common center where all classes, without respect to age or party, may come to learn those things that redound to the general welfare, the School may become indeed the great national university for the development of civic righteousness.

The principle of self-government is applicable also to the larger community about the School. Through the development of parents' associations and bodies of alumni that are able to suggest measures best adapted to promote the usefulness of the School, the idea of a common responsibility is developed. An extension of this same principle, in the form of an advisory council composed of representatives from the institution and from the neighborhood, is the next step in democratic control. This method has already been found expedient in the case of some of the older universities and settlements. The duties of administration are lightened by sharing them, and the responsibility of legislation is broadly buttressed by concurrent opinion. The mere exercise of such functions in behalf of the School on the part of the community about it, trains in the exercise of civic virtues and diffuses an appreciation of the point and drift of our enlarging public agencies. By opening a natural field for the service of women also, it would do much to promote a public spirit

among the half of the population that it is still too limited in its functions of general usefulness.

**Training for
the Higher
Democracy.**

There are two notions current today, both of which seem to possess deep significance, neither of which appear to have great efficiency. The one is a conception of social philosophers; the other is an ideal of poets and religious leaders. The first is the concept of a social conscience; the second is the hope of the brotherhood of man. Both of these ideas are held to be of great value by those who have acquired them. But they float in the upper regions of our thought like the aurora in the higher air. They are so beautiful we scarcely dare to hope that we may bring them down and live by their light. Still they are as much working hypotheses as remote ideals, though we may fail to realize them as such. By the social conscience is meant, I suppose, such a knowledge of the organization of society on the part of its members, that the larger activities of life are directed with a consciousness of their meaning for the group as a whole. Universal brotherhood defines itself. It would seem to be a state of so-

ciety that might result from living by the light of such knowledge as we have just mentioned. But what are we doing to establish such an attitude toward life as shall assure the State we all dream of? Is it to be assumed that men will arrive at any just appreciation of social ends without instruction? The great nations of the past have held up some large ideal by which the people have shaped their lives. What then, is the mission of America? To many it seems to be the working out of the idea of democracy. How then shall the people be brought to understand the aims of Democracy? This, it seems to me, is possible only when our people as a whole understand the privileges and duties of the social life in which they are placed. Only then will it be possible for an enlightened nation to unite in even progress toward the real goal of Democracy, which is mutual aid in the attainment of a higher life for all the people. In this way, will our social evolution be freed from the mere caprice of opposing forces, and be directed consciously and consistently toward the realization of the ideal commonwealth.

In a Car at Night

(New Orleans *Times-Democrat*.)

The night and mist of rain had made
A mirror of the window glass
And so when idly I essayed
To see the long procession pass
Of little villages that flee,
Of scattered lights that twinkle far
The window-mirror gave to me
Alone the objects in the car!

How often when we look without
Our comfortable circles on
The world we see beyond a doubt
None comfortless and woe-begone!
See our content reflected full,
The fools of an illusion vain,
And never dream (oh, blind and dull!)
What lies beyond of grief and pain!

The Industrial Viewpoint

CONDUCTED BY GRAHAM TAYLOR

Public Exhibitions of the Conditions of Labor

A World's Fair for union labor is the ambitious project of the American Federation of Labor. The first attempt to realize an idea which may prove to have economic value and may be a very effective form of trade union propaganda deserves the widest co-operation of all friends of American labor in and out of the unions to execute it wisely and well. Max Morris, fourth vice-president of the federation, who has been commissioned by President Gompers to organize the support of the unions, has already begun to enlist their interest and set them to work upon this most exacting enterprise ever undertaken by organized labor in this country. The exhibits are to include products of all trades in which union labor is employed and are expected to demonstrate the superiority of union made goods, as well as the strength and distribution of union labor. It is hoped by its promoters that the exposition may be held as early as next winter and at some central point, probably Minneapolis.

It is urged however by those interested in the widest success and permanent results of this project that it should be undertaken only with the greatest care, under able management and deliberately enough to command for its display of facts and conditions the confidence and scientific value which they should merit. Such an exposition if thoroughly wrought out, affords the greatest opportunity ever furnished in America to deal a serious blow to sweating and child labor throughout the entire country. Nothing could work more effectively to build up legitimate trade unionism and to destroy what ought to be illegitimate conditions of labor than to display to the eye and mind of the American people the contrast between the social waste of sweated industries and the economic value of a human standard of living. To

place the exhibits of both side by side is at once the most impressive and convincing way of getting the great jury of public opinion to render its verdict against the wrong and for the right with an emphasis sure to formulate itself in more effective legislation.

German Home-Work Exhibitions.

Germany has led the way and set the type for such an exposition, with the thoroughness which the world has come to expect in every educational or scientific endeavor undertaken by her people. Two years ago a Congress for the Protection of Home Workers was held at Berlin. It attracted such wide attention, as much by the few exhibits with which its discussions were illustrated as by what was heard from the expert investigators, that it was determined to attempt an exhibit of every class of home industry. This was carried out in Berlin early in the present year apparently with great effectiveness. The great work involved in carrying through such a large undertaking devolved upon the workers themselves. They were poor and could pay little for the exacting labor required.

So the work was volunteered by trade unionists, especially by members of the women's unions. Some of the victims of the "sweating system" co-operated, but not all. For some of them were afraid of losing even the scanty living of their death-dealing jobs. The German government gave many of them courage by lending a public building, the old Academy of Arts, at the heart of Berlin and thus according a semi-official support to the exhibition held in it. Admission was free to all members of trade unions. Others paid a fee of six cents.

Exhibits of the products of sweated work were displayed so as to show the process in each industry. Every product was accompanied by a card stating the

conditions of labor under which the article was made, the working time per piece, the price paid for it, the average earnings per hour, the price paid for the same work in the factories, the outlay by the worker, the net earnings per hour and per week for the average numbers of hours daily, the price of the raw material, the wholesale and retail prices of the finished product, the age of the worker, the number, sex and age of fellow workers and how many of them were of the same family, and whether the workroom was used as a bedroom or kitchen or both. The condition of the home, the number and size of rooms and the health and prospects of the workers were also noted.

The *Bureau für Sozialpolitik*, under whose auspices the trades unions, various women's unions, and many social reformers united to carry the exposition through, is driving home to the hearts and consciences of the German people the appeal which these facts make for those reforms and legislation demanded by human interests and the public welfare.

The buyers of toys, for instance, have been forced to look behind the doll's house, the wooden horses and the lead soldiers—to see behind their children who play with them “the drawn, gray faces of women, faces that have never laughed, the faces of children with sad eyes and flat cheeks and little shrunken figures,” some of whom work nine hours a day for less than two cents an hour. The devout purchaser of the carved wooden figure of Christ hanging on the cross is interrupted in his or her devotions long enough to realize that the man and his wife at Oberammergau earned only 25 cents for seven hours' work which it cost both of them to carve it.

The facts brought to light are said to have made “a painful impression” in Germany. The empress, who was among the visitors, was reported to have been “shocked” as were some members of the reichstag. National legislation will be demanded at the hands of that body, providing for compulsory registration of home workers, the extension of workmen's insurance to them and the

strict regulation of piece work, as at least a partial protection for home workers.

Evidently such legislative effects of the exposition were feared by some of the employing interests involved, and the popular agitation at Berlin surely struck a vulnerable spot. For it is said “such opposition was raised that the display will not soon be shown in other German cities.” Notwithstanding this attitude of certain manufacturers we are personally assured by United States Consul Hurst at Plauen that the exhibition “was a unique undertaking, having economic as well as humanitarian value.” In reporting it to the state department officially he writes:

Everything that one naturally connects with a great fair is strikingly absent. The products of tenement and sweat shop, small piecework evolved by the needy, are laid bare to the public. Each exhibit is ticketed, setting forth the pay for piece, time employed in making, and the profit per hour. If the object itself does not particularly attract the attention of the visitor the descriptive tag certainly appeals to him. A few examples may be given: A boy's suit of clothes, three pieces, made for about seventeen cents; artistic wooden crucifixes, carved, at less than two cents an hour; 144 toy menagerie animals for eleven cents; putting up 1,000 needles for less than 1 cent for the lot; mounting hooks and eyes on 360 cards, with twenty-four pair on each, altogether 17,280 pieces, for twenty-eight cents; and an extreme case is that of a bit of lace from Plauen worked at the rate of about one-quarter of a cent an hour. Progress and poverty are nowhere more abruptly contrasted than in this pitiful display. Expressions of amazement and sympathy, manifested by the highest classes of society, are echoed throughout the German press.

**The London
Exhibit and
Hand-Book.**

In London a first small exhibition of sweated industries was held immediately after the German exhibition closed by the pastor of a parish in Bethnal Green, whose people were victimized by the system. But in May the London *Daily News* promoted the most effective exhibition of sweating ever held. The council which co-operated with this great newspaper champion of human rights and interests was headed by the distinguished theological professor, scholar, writer and man of affairs, George Adam Smith, and included prominent members of parliament, clergymen of many de-

nominations, public-spirited citizens and some influential women. Not only as in Germany were the products of sweated industries displayed, but the unique and impressive feature was successfully carried through of having the workers themselves from the sweated homes working away at their sweated jobs. There were twenty-four stalls concerning each of which there was a description of the work being done, of the process of doing it and some account of the worker there at work.

Every evening the sweated home industries were illustrated by lantern slides and the afternoons provided a series of lectures by those who had personally investigated the conditions and their bearings on personal and public welfare. The topics included such as *Cheap Clothes and Nasty, The Housing Problem and Sweating, The Effect of Sweating Upon the Rates*—that is, the taxes for the support of the poor; *The Responsibility of the Purchaser, Nutrition and Sweating, Children in Sweated Trades, Position of Women in Industry, Sweating, by One of the Sweated, and Why and How the Community Should Suppress Sweating*. The hand-book of the exhibition, compiled by Richard Mudie-Smith, is a wonderfully brief, vivid, convincing description in print and pictures of conditions of labor so inhuman and unsafe that they need only to be made known in order to be regulated if not suppressed by such a government as Britain now has. Indeed, the war department co-operated by displaying the sweated goods it uses, thus helping to furnish the basis for legislation to correct the evil.

The list of industries which this hand-book shows to be sweated in England is in itself most suggestive and appealing. It includes a surprising variety and strange contrasts—shirt making, sack sewing, umbrella covering, ammunition bags, chain and nails, clay pipes, fur sewing, glove stitching, coffin tassels, military embroidery, cigarette cases, artificial flowers, tennis ball covering, jewel cases, Bible folding,—and many other occupations grimly and often gruesomely described. The compiler assures the reader that “no article in this

hand-book has been edited. Each appears exactly as it was written.” Moreover “the illustrations in this hand-book are from photographs taken in most cases by a flash light and have not been in any way altered or, with two exceptions, touched up. Both these features and the very realistic way in which the exhibits are described and tabulated, make the hand-book very practically suggestive of the scope, resources, arrangement, and aims to be sought in organizing American exhibits of industrial conditions.

Exhibits in
Philadelphia
and New York
Next Winter.

One such exhibition has been planned by the Consumers' League of Philadelphia, the Civic Club, the New Century Club and the Pennsylvania Child Labor Committee with the co-operation of no less than eighteen other associations. for the purpose of showing in graphic form, some of the actual conditions—both good and evil—of modern industry. The better conditions of industry will be illustrated by exhibits of articles made in well ordered factories such as those which use the Consumers' League Label, accompanied by information regarding the conditions of employment. Good selling conditions, will be represented by exhibits from the retail stores on the white list. The evil features, such as sweat shop work and child labor, will be shown by a collection of sweat shop and tenement made articles, accompanied as far as possible by schedules of wages, hours of labor and sanitary conditions; and by a series of representations picturing actual cases of child labor and of ill-regulated, unsanitary and inhuman conditions of work. There will also be exhibits illustrative of the various means employed by different organizations to lessen these evils and those that follow in their wake. Photographs, statistical charts and printed matter will be used to arouse further public interest; and it has been planned to have nightly lectures by men and women most thoroughly acquainted with the conditions shown in the exhibitions.

This December exhibit in Philadelphia is to be followed by another in New

York of protected machinery which the American Institute of Social Service announces for January.

**International
Exposition by
the French
Government.**

The United States consul at Roubaix, France, reports a resolution passed by the French Chamber of Deputies requesting the government to appoint a commission to look into the question of finding ways and means to organize an international exposition to be held in Paris in 1909 in which there will be as full and perfect a display as possible of a laborer's life. At the first meeting of this commission, the minister of commerce presided and set forth both the advantages and the difficulties in obtaining the end desired. The president of the French chamber, Leon Bourgeois, thus stated the purposes which the exposition would fulfill:

It would serve as a comparison between the conditions of the life of the laborer of today in all countries of the world and conditions in past centuries. It would serve also as a striking illustration of the laboring classes of the steps by which they have gradually freed themselves from the state of servitude existing in feudal times until they have arrived at the independence enjoyed to-day. It would enlighten them as to legislation enacted for their relief and protection through successive centuries, also concerning the work of social organization occupied by their advancement.

"This exposition," he added, "cannot fail to appeal to all who strive to elevate the condition of labor."

**Opening
a New Chapter
in History.**

Justin McCarthy, writing in *The Independent* of the London Exposition, says, "I am glad to say that this exhibition has already attracted the attention of all classes and that royal princesses have been among its most frequent visitors and have shown the deepest interest in conversing with the workingmen who exhibit the articles and hearing from them the story of their work and their pay and their lives. "I do not by any means believe," he affirms "that the aristocracy

or the capitalists or the wealthy classes of any order are without sympathy for the under-paid, when once their attention has been drawn to the subject." But he does not explain or extenuate the fact that the attention of such needs to be "drawn" to a subject so painfully apparent to all who care to think of the conditions of human toil. "We may be sure," he concludes, "that the labor party will now take good care that such attention shall never be withdrawn until the remedy has been found." And he significantly adds, "a new chapter now opens in our history." So we may be sure that a new chapter is opening in the history of American industry when organized labor in its own behalf and groups of men and women in behalf of the human interests and issues involved are combining to place side by side in deadly parallel the exhibits of good and bad, human and inhuman conditions of labor.

**The Campaign
Carried to
the Workers.**

Organized labor in Chicago is setting an example in unique fashion by carrying the educational propaganda against "sweated" labor to the workers themselves. A street campaign is being conducted by the Chicago Federation of Labor to demonstrate what the unions are doing in eradicating sweat shop evils and bringing in better working conditions. A parade of trade unionists, led by a fife and drum corps and an American flag, and carrying transparencies, marches through a district and halts when a crowd has been gathered. A union quartette sings. Stereopticon pictures contrast conditions of labor in the unorganized trades with the improvements brought about by trade unions. Members of the Garment Workers' and Broom Makers' unions have thus far led the speaking.

The Chicago Federation of Musicians supplies the music for these occasions, and the same organization has planned to give free street concerts in the poorest districts of the city.

Edward T. Devine
Editor
Graham Taylor, Associate
Lee H. Frankel, Associate for
Jewish Charity

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New York's
Three
Arts Club.

With the increased activity of recent months in providing suitable hotels for working girls in our larger cities the organization of The Three Arts Club of New York becomes of special interest. Some three years ago an effort was made to establish a home for the benefit of the young women—many practically without funds—who yearly come to New York city to study some branch of art.

The work was inaugurated in a small apartment accommodating about half a dozen students. At the end of the year under the direction of Bishop Coadjutor David H. Greer, of the Protestant Episcopal Church, a house was rented where fifteen girls could live and work. Soon after this a second house was procured where fifteen more students could be accommodated, so that at present The Three Arts Club cares for thirty young women who come as perfect strangers to New York to study or work in either music, painting or the drama. The hundreds of applications for admission that have been received show the value of the undertaking.

Aside from the residential side of The Three Arts Club, the rooms are open for the use of non-resident members. The work is under the direction of a board of women managers and a resident house-mother.

It is the intention of those interested to extend the work into all large cities where there is a need for such an organi-

zation. Branches have already been established in Rochester and Philadelphia. The list of the incorporators follows: Bishop Greer, Mrs. John Henry Hammond, Jane H. Hall, Florence Rapallo and Mrs. Robert Burnside Potter. The club is under the auspices of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the diocese of New York.

Ohio
Conference of
Charities and
Correction.

The first Ohio Conference of Charities and Correction was held at Columbus, January 19-22, 1892. There were 149 delegates present at this initial gathering. Since that time annual sessions have been held at various parts of the state, with a constantly increasing attendance. These conferences have been under the direction of the Board of State Charities, but the delegates are permitted to elect the officers.

The sixteenth annual conference will be held at Marietta, October 2-5, 1906. J. L. Jordan, superintendent of the Washington county Children's Home, is president of the conference. The Marietta local committee is under the chairmanship of S. J. Hathaway.

The executive committee announces that Alexander Johnson, secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction and Hastings H. Hart, president of the Children's Home and Aid Society, will be present throughout the sessions. The advanced program will be issued about September 15.

The Society for Italian Immigrants. 12,359 Italians registered with the Society for Italian Immigrants at 17 Pearl street, New York, during the months of April, May and June, 1906. 11,633 of this number commenced their new life in charge of the society's guides. The following figures, taken from a period of three months, gives an idea of the activities of the society:

	April.	May.	June.
Steamers arriving with Italians.....	33	36	37
Italians landed at Ellis Island.....	34,701	40,354	38,139
Largest registry in one day	388	396	529
Italians leaving office with relatives	520	534	477
Money received for immigrants by Society	\$609.00	\$887.50	\$1,187.60
Appeals made by the Society from deportation sustained	16	14	15
Appeals made by the Society from deportation refused.	5	14	18
Immigrants taken to Benevolent Society	156	289	211
Steamship runners investigated	4	8	11

At the society's office the immigrants are classified according to their destination; those who land without definite plans ahead are aided in securing work; others are helped in finding friends and relatives and started aright for their new homes. Aside from the offices in Pearl street, which are kept open Sundays and holidays, the society maintains agents at Ellis Island, where immigrants detained for deportation are interviewed and advised. During the past year educational work was carried on in the Italian labor camp of the Pittsburg filtration plant.

The Shame of Cincinnati. Reform and politics will not mix in Cincinnati. The Board of Public Service of that city has shown this in the past and its latest exhibition is the dismissal of James Allison from the office of superintendent of the House of Refuge. With a trumped-up charge against a thoroughly capable manager—a man of wide experience in dealing with public wards—Mayor Dempsey appointed a committee

of three citizens to conduct an investigation. The move was purely for political reasons. The findings of the committee were favorable to Mr. Allison. Nevertheless the Board of Public Service dismissed the superintendent as well as his assistant. Such flagrant instances of political meddling with purely reformatory institutions are fortunately rare. The shame be to Cincinnati. To quote from an editorial appearing in the *Times-Star* at the time of the dismissal:

The crowning infamy of the Refuge conspiracy approaches—the dismissal of James Allison and Peter Costello from the institution. And then the shame of Cincinnati will be complete.

With machine-like precision the conspiracy has moved remorselessly to its end, over-running public opinion, the views of experts in reformatory work, the pleadings of those who have come closest in contact with the two men, and their vindication by the investigation committee. Everything has been crushed that stood in the way of the car of Juggernaut. * * * The shame of Cincinnati of to-day will be wiped out. The fair name and good character of the men who were condemned long before an inquiry was started, who have been convicted even before a trial, will shine forth long after the names of the conspirators are buried in the blackness of their own infamy.

Mr. Allison was a former president of the Ohio Conference of Charities and Correction and is now president of the Conference on the Education of Backward, Truant and Delinquent Children.

Thomas W. Lane. Thomas W. Lane, for twenty-five years an active participant in the charitable work of Boston, died in that city a few weeks ago. He was a child of immigrants—brought up without special privileges of any sort—living his entire life among the poor of his neighborhood and interesting himself always in their welfare.

Keenly interested in providing healthful amusement for the children of Boston's crowded centers, he took the lead in establishing a gymnasium in East Boston, which was afterward presented to the city and became the first municipal gymnasium in the United States. He was a hearty worker in the interest of public baths and he lived to see the baths

and gymnasiums of Boston reach a stage of development where the people thoroughly believed in them.

To quote from Robert A. Woods, of South End House, writing in the *Boston Transcript*:

What makes the career of Thomas J. Lane memorable is in its demonstration that city life with all its abatements can and will produce the citizen—that in its inherent conditions there is scope and incentive for what is best in human nature, for the all-round co-operative intelligence, the timely aggressive morality upon which democracy depends. We have many public spirited citizens by tradition and inheritance, men whose point of view has been reached through unlimited opportunities of education, travel and intercourse. Given the impulse toward social service, however, he was embarrassed by none of the hindrances which privilege creates against having relations with people in general. * * * Distinctive as his public service was, this was not Mr. Lane's most vital contribution to the life and welfare of his city. The future wellbeing of our great American urban communities depends more upon the development of common and united feeling than upon anything else. No man in Boston during the past dozen years has done more penetrating and effectual work in this direction than Mr. Lane. He was above all things a reconciler. Living in a section of the city where, a dozen years ago, there were bitter and on occasion bloody feuds between Protestants and Catholics, he set himself with the utmost earnestness, and as always with practical method, to bring about not only friendly feeling, but joint action among representatives of these opposing religious camps. He was the soul of tolerance. He understood, as Phillips Brooks said long ago, that the tolerant man was not the indifferent man, but the one who deeply believed. He was a devoted Catholic. His faith and experience as a churchman meant more to him than anything else, and were his inspiration in all his work but the very reality of his religious feeling lifted it to a level above sectarianism and gave it breadth to include mankind. The religious feuds of East Boston have disappeared, and the misunderstandings which were back of them are greatly alleviated. In the unique fact that at Mr. Lane's funeral four of the eight bearers were Protestants, and one of them a Protestant minister, there was signalized a high type of civic and moral triumph which he had won.

Urban Social Centers.

The Massachusetts Civic League, has for some time been endeavoring to formulate a plan that would lead to the development of social centers, because it

believes very strongly in their constructive value in a community. The desire is to have in some physical center a town hall, church, school building or village improvement society house, a place where people may naturally come together for the discussion of the affairs of the community. Good examples of social centers are difficult to find. Greendale, a suburb of Worcester, Mass., has an improvement society house that serves in a measure such a function. The town hall in Fairhaven is another. Framingham, Mass., through its improvement society is planning to get control of the old town hall, no longer used, and if it succeeds the hall will be put in order as a center for all the activities of the people of the community. George W. Cable in a recent address said that he felt there was nothing of greater force than an actual physical building where everybody is at home and where all are welcome. Chicago is providing something along this line in its neighborhood club houses or community centers as they are called in a recent pamphlet issued by the American Civic Association. Here, in parks varying from five to three hundred and sixty acres in size, club houses have been erected which contain probably everything needed for community activities, athletic exercises, bathing, restaurants, and all kinds of accommodations for all children and young people.

Church Vacation Schools.

With an enrolment of 6,362 children and an average daily attendance of 1,847, the commencement exercises of the daily vacation bible schools of New York city were held on August 23 in the Methodist Temple. The schools, twenty-three in number, were conducted by the New York City Federation of Churches. Eight denominations were represented in the work.

Instruction was given daily in manual work, including hammock and basket making and sewing; stories from the Bible were studied, lessons in singing were given and twice a week the children were told about the proper care of the body and first aid to the injured.

The care and instruction of the chil-

dren was intrusted to seventy-five college graduates, young men and women who took up the work because of their interest in children and their belief that the vacation days, with their unemployed hours, were full of temptation. The cost of the work was approximately \$7,000. Robert G. Boville was the director in charge.

**Rewards
for Belgian
Laborers.**

J. C. McNally, consul at Liege, reports that no emolument arising from labor is more sought after by the Belgian workingman than is the industrial decoration conferred annually upon a certain number of workingmen who have performed good and faithful services to one firm or employer for at least thirty successive years. This system has had a healthy influence upon the male portion of the working classes.

To further stimulate stability and continued service on the part of house servants, who were not included in the above, a royal decree was issued on June 15 conferring the same privilege upon house servants who have for a period of twenty-five years served one master, or have been in the same family and merited from them the required recommendation for faithful and devoted service. The candidate must be at least forty-five years of age. The servant question in Belgium presents the same difficulties as in other countries, with the exception that the servant comes on probation for eight days. If in this time she does not prove satisfactory, she can be dismissed without notice. If she is retained beyond that time, eight days' notice must be given on either side before leaving.

**Immigrants'
Information
Bureau.**

An immigrants' information bureau has been established in Pittsburg, Pa., by the Columbian Society of Jewish Women. The new work is under the supervision of L. Leo Theuman, who recently went to Pittsburg to make a special study of immigrant conditions in that city.

A committee of women has been appointed to look after the routine work of the bureau, which will be open every evening from seven until nine P. M. for the benefit of immigrant women and girls who desire information about employment, location of friends or relatives and lodgings. The new bureau is located in the synagogue on Washington street.

**Social Service
Club of
Maryland**

In November, 1904, the Eight o'Clock Club of Baltimore changed its name and scope. Previous to that time, it had been composed almost entirely of paid workers. The new name given it is the Social Service Club of Maryland, and its enlarged membership includes all those interested in social and philanthropic work throughout the state. As this brings in volunteer workers and theorists as well as paid and practical workers, the club has a very broadening influence. From January to June meetings were held monthly.

The first meeting was held at the home of the visiting nurses. Dr. Carl Kelsey of the University of Pennsylvania spoke on *The Course of Progress*.

In February the club met at the time that the state legislature was in session. The meeting was largely given up to the discussion of bills, which were then before the legislature. These included the measures on child labor, indeterminate sentences, salary loan and tuberculosis. Dr. John S. Fulton of the State Board of Health told about the campaign for pure milk in Maryland. Dr. William H. Allen, of the New York A. I. C. P., spoke at the March meeting on *Sanitary Aspects of Social Work*. In April Miss Mabel T. Boardman, of the Red Cross Society, told of the work of that organization. It was a strange coincidence that the San Francisco disaster occurred two or three days before this meeting, and Miss Boardman's talk was especially timely.

The May meeting occurred shortly after the Conference of Charities and Corrections, and was given up to brief talks on topics discussed at the Conference.

Contrary to the plan of most organizations of this kind, dinners are not given before the meetings. At the end of the addresses, refreshments are served and half an hour or more is given up to social intercourse.

The club hopes to start its winter work with a definite plan. The officers are:

Mrs. John M. Glenn, president; Dr. John S. Fulton, vice-president; Mr. H. Wirt Steele, treasurer; Miss Mary G. Spencer, secretary; Miss Mary Lent and Mr. Nathaniel Grasty, members of the executive committee.

Notes

Negro Hospital for Atlantic City.—A negro hospital and free dispensary has been opened in Atlantic City, N. J. A cottage has been leased at 1716 Arctic avenue for this purpose. Dr. P. L. Hawkins is the physician in charge.

Probationary School for Nurses.—In order to relieve the Bellevue Nurses' Training School of its primary classes, a probationary school has been opened at No. 212 E. 26th street, New York. At present there are eighteen in the school, which is known as the Probationers' Home. A school of similar nature is connected with Johns Hopkins Hospital in Baltimore.

Conference Songs.—One of the minor resolutions passed at the National Conference of Charities and Correction was for the appointment of a special committee to prepare a list of songs suitable for these gatherings. Such a list was prepared and printed at the request of Mr. McCulloch, president of the conference of 1891 at Indianapolis, and sung there. The same list was used in 1896 at Grand Rapids and has been since used, also, at Indiana state conferences.

Jewish Hospital Additions.—An addition to the Jewish Maternity Hospital of Philadelphia will be built, including a nursery, a dispensary and a nurses' dormitory. The hospital has also secured property adjoining the seaside home at Ventor, N. J., for an annex to that branch. The officers of the association follow: President, Mrs. H. H. Ginsburg; vice-president, Mrs. Albert Abraham; secretary, Mrs. S. Belle Cohn; treasurer, Isaac Hertzberg; directors for four years, Mrs. Henrietta Gerstley, Mrs. Abe Hertzberg, Mrs. Benjamin Strauss; to serve for an unexpired term, Mrs. Isaac Katzenberg.

The Work of Michigan Physicians.—Under the leadership of Dr. A. Carrier, of Detroit, an active campaign has been begun by the physicians of the state through a permanent committee on venereal prophylaxis has been appointed by the state medical society. Under this committee public meetings have been planned for every county in the state. At the public meeting held in June, in connection with the annual meeting of the State Medical Society, men and women of prominence in other than medical circles were present to discuss the practical question of ways and means, thus publicly identifying themselves with the movement initiated by the physicians.

Bequests to Hebrew Charities.—According to the will of Isaac Glazier, who died at Frankfort-on-the-Main on June 25, the testator leaves \$2,500 each to the Mount Sinai Hospital, the Hebrew Technical Institute, the Montefiore Home for Chronic Invalids, the Hebrew Benevolent and Orphan Society, the Home for Aged and Infirm Hebrews, and the Hebrew Educational Alliance.

He directs that \$25,000 be devoted to charitable and benevolent institutions besides, of which \$15,000 will go to institutions in San Francisco, \$5,000 to institutions in Frankfort-on-the-Main, Germany, and \$5,000 to a Hebrew congregation in Pilsen, Germany. After the death of his wife, Bertha Glazier, \$100,000 is to be set apart to be known as the Isaac and Bertha Glazier Fund, the income of which is to be used for the assistance of needy Hebrews.

The American Tuberculosis Exhibition at Manistee.—The American Tuberculosis Exhibition recently closed a successful week in Manistee, Mich. It was a new departure to exhibit in a small town like Manistee, but the interest shown seems to warrant the experiment. The attendance was over 2,000 in the course of a week and the various meetings drew in visitors from surrounding towns in considerable numbers. This was notably the case with regard to physicians. In this connection it is interesting to note that a number of the various state associations which have recently been organized are planning exhibitions similar to that of the National Association for use in their respective states.

State Anti-Tuberculosis Leagues.—The formation of the Delaware Anti-Tuberculosis League was noticed in these columns a few weeks ago. The National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis reports the organization of the North Carolina Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis and also the fact that preliminary meetings for the formation of state associations have been held in Wisconsin and Minnesota and that the formal organizations in these states are now assured. Local associations were organized during the months of June and July in Dubuque, Iowa; Memphis, Tenn.; and Wilkesbarre, Pa. Another interesting item is the organization of the Porto Rico Anti-Tuberculosis League with headquarters in San Juan.

Fire Loss at Grand View, Pa.—On August 18, fire destroyed the main building of the Grand View Institution for Consumptives, located at Oil City, Pa. Dining room, kitchen, offices, infirmary and quarters for nurses were burned. At the time of the fire twenty-five patients were being treated in the regular buildings and fifteen more were accommodated elsewhere. Unless aid comes soon the institution will be obliged to close for the present.

New York's Blind Pension.—New York city's blind received their annual bounty on August 27. The sum of \$54,570 was distributed. Each person received \$51. Last year the sum was \$50 a head. Those persons who receive aid from public institutions did not participate in the bounty. Those receiving aid were distributed as follows: Manhattan and the Bronx, 625; Richmond, 17; Brooklyn and Queens, 428.

Benefaction to Hebrew Societies.—The will of Mrs. Jacob H. Lazarus of New York City, includes the following charitable bequests: Metropolitan Museum of Art, \$20,000; Mount Sinai Hospital, \$5,000; Montefiore Home, \$10,000; Corcoran Art Gallery, \$5,000; Hebrew Technical School, \$20,000; Home for Aged and Infirm Hebrews, \$20,000; United Hebrew Charities of New York city, \$20,000; Montefiore Home for Chronic Invalids, \$10,000; Hebrew Benevolent and Orphan Asylum, \$10,000; Trustees of the New York Fire Department Relief Fund, \$10,000; New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, \$10,000; Free Burial Society of the Congregation Borech Amuno, \$5,000; Hebra Hased Veamet, \$10,000; Good Samaritan Dispensary, \$5,000; Manhattan Eye and Ear Hospital, \$10,000; Museum in the City of Philadelphia, \$5,000.

The bulk of the residuary estate is divided between the above-mentioned institutions and societies, and bequests are made to many relatives of the testatrix.

Six Years of Visiting Nursing in Concord.—The Concord District Nursing Association presents an interesting report of the last year's work—the sixth of the association, and makes some suggestions for the future. Calls for the services of the nurse are coming from outside the city, even from the rural regions, and the executive committee is to choose a member-at-large, who shall represent the entire community in the interest of the association and in the raising of funds, previous officers having always been chosen as representing some one church or society. At the meeting of the association, Christopher C. Thurber, head of the Settlement House at Danbury, urged the need for rural nursing and gave appalling accounts of the conditions in country districts. The Settlement House, which numbers among its officers some of the managers of the Visiting Nursery Association, is incorporated to work the entire state, and is extending on lines which must make it a suggestive example in guiding social betterment in towns and country regions.

The Association of Working Girls' Societies.—The Association of Working Girls' Societies wishes to secure the co-operation of

other societies so that together they may rent the large ground floor at 209 East 23rd street, which will be fitted up as a gymnasium and basket ball room. The room can also be used in the morning as a kindergarten, or for afternoon clubs or classes. By such co-operation a very large space (25 x 80 feet) can be secured at a very moderate price. Apply to Mrs. A. H. Kellogg, Treasurer Association of Working Girls' Societies, 329 West 75th street.

Hoboken's United Charities Society.—The city of Hoboken, N. J., with a population of 65,000 inhabitants celebrated its fifty-first anniversary March 28, 1906. With its many churches, its few institutions, and its small charitably inclined societies it has at last seen the necessity of establishing a United Charities Society. An agent has been elected, who is a graduate of the New York School of Philanthropy, and an office has been opened at 1 Newark street.

The churches have aided their poor for many years and those not in charge of any particular church or society have naturally been brought to the notice of the poor master, who finds the work now getting beyond his control. The entire work of the Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children has now been turned over to the agent of the United Charities Society.

As the United Charities Society is in its infancy it must look for co-operation to the societies of other cities and it assures them of its own willingness to make any investigations, and give all possible aid, asking only that other societies will not hesitate to call upon Hoboken in return.

There is maintained in connection with the Hoboken United Charities Society a Bureau of Information, where all records of cases are kept, an Application Bureau, an Investigating Department (the agent making all investigation himself), and a staff of friendly visitors, upon whom the agent is free to call at any time. The co-operation of the police department and the poor master is also pledged.

Public School Athletic Fields.—At the final mid-summer meeting of the executive committee of the New York City Board of Education contracts for new buildings, additions and repairs were awarded involving an expenditure of \$1,784,269. Among the contracts was one for the construction of a public school athletic field in the Borough of Queens. This is the first of four new athletic fields to be laid out by the Board of Education and although it is located in Queens, it is only a few blocks from the East Ninety-second street ferry and therefore easy of access to the Manhattan school children. The largest portion of the appropriation went for the construction of new school buildings in Brooklyn.

A Visit to the Boston Visitors

Porter R. Lee

Buffalo Charity Organization Society

The officers of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society have long been dissatisfied with the status of friendly visiting in Buffalo. This dissatisfaction resulted recently in a visit of the writer to Boston to gather what inspiration he could on the friendly visitor's native heath. He gathered a good deal, chiefly because of the courtesy and genuine interest of the Boston workers. For other cities, like Buffalo, where efforts to build up a corps of efficient friendly visitors have had more or less meager results, the Boston methods may have some practical suggestions whose application elsewhere should be fruitful.

It was no lack of belief in the value of friendly visiting which led to this inquiry. It was rather a distrust of our methods of using visitors. Visitors of the best type were failing to win the confidence of their families. Others of excellent qualities seemed unable to grasp the need of a personal, vital relation between their families and themselves. We had been unable also to develop a close connection between the visitors and the society. Many of them gave few reports except those which we asked for, and they did not regard themselves as an integral part of the society. Except in one district few visitors attended committee meetings, even irregularly.

In a total of 175 visitors, all visiting fairly regularly, impartial search could find only thirty who seemed successful. Perhaps as many more were untested new visitors. After making sundry other eliminations, such as visitors whose first allegiance was elsewhere, there remained about eighty-five visitors, or practically half the total number, whose work seemed as yet of no benefit to the families visited and little more than a disappointment to the visitors themselves. Many of these had been faithfully visiting the same families for as long as three years. Realizing that after three years of determined effort to develop a corps of effective visitors, only

thirty, out of the total of 175 actually visiting, seemed successful, we decided that our methods of using visitors were faulty. The writer, therefore, set out for Boston with three questions to be answered: Does friendly visiting pay? If so, what reason is there to think so? How is it made to pay?

There will be no doubt in the mind of any one as to the answer of Boston to the first question. In Boston friendly visiting does pay. If it did not it would not be continued. With the Boston ideal unrealized elsewhere, it has been asserted at times that something in the atmosphere of Boston life, favorable to the growth of friendly visiting, is lacking in the newer communities westward of New England. Without entering into an argument on this point, it may be stated that local habits are of slow growth. The multiplicity of charitable societies in Boston is evidence that the care of the poor is a Boston habit. Friendly visiting is a Boston habit. Like all habits it grew from small beginnings. It is also a habit elsewhere; but in Buffalo and possibly elsewhere it has not yet become fixed and the question is whether it shall develop into a good or a bad habit. That it may become a habit the experience of Boston proves. The Associated Charities there has over 700 visitors enrolled, by far the larger number of whom, not on probation, are doing good work. The case is not proved by figures alone. But 700 visitors enlisted under an organization whose standard is high and whose requirements are rigorous is significant evidence that friendly visiting may become a habit and a good one.

The Boston Associated Charities is quite willing to allow an inquirer to go back of these figures. There were revealed to me instances both of success and failure. Definite information concerning the length and quality of the service of visitors furnishes a good index to the value of the Boston practice. In

1899 statistics were carefully compiled concerning the visitors in three Boston districts. These districts were organized respectively in 1879, 1880 and 1898. In 1899 there were 201 visitors in these three districts. Twenty-two, or 11 per cent. of the whole number, had been visiting since the organization of the conferences. Only two of these belonged to the conference organized in 1898. Of these twenty-two original members, twenty-three per cent. were called excellent, twenty-seven per cent. good, twenty-three per cent. fair, eighteen per cent. poor, and the two in the 1898 conference were called untried. Of the whole 201 visitors, 12.5 per cent. were called excellent, thirty-four per cent. good, thirty-two per cent. fair, sixteen per cent. poor, and 5.5 per cent. unproved. The officers of the Boston Associated Charities believe that as good results would be shown in nearly all the other districts except those too recently organized or reorganized to have achieved definite results.

A striking evidence of the practical value of friendly visiting in Boston, more directly to the visitor and indirectly to the poor, is the graduation of persons who have gained their first experience in social work through visiting, into larger organizations, such as state boards. Possibly the number of such persons is not large enough to call attention to their experience as a feature of Boston visiting. A few such instances came under my observation, however, and I heard of others. The difficulties of a poor family are typical of the larger difficulties which social work in all its departments is trying to meet. Interest in the larger problems of the same sort tends to follow from the visitor's experience with two or three families. Assuming that the majority of a society's visitors have the equipment of intelligence and open-mindedness necessary for successful visitors, this same experience leads to the development in the community of an enlightened public sentiment upon matters of large public importance, such as truancy and probation, which, particularly in a western city, it is difficult to create.

If the purpose of organized charity is to get the city's charity, both money and service, to the city's poor most effectively, a system of work which brings several hundred persons with service to give into contact with as many families who need it, is surely in line with this purpose. Acceptance of this statement does not necessarily affirm that a society can not do effectual work without a considerable number of friendly visitors. In its case work, however, such a society can be doing little more than drawing a circle around the city's poverty, keeping out those who ought to be self-dependent. It cannot accomplish much towards lifting families out of the circle. That requires the same individual treatment as does disease, and it must be individual treatment long continued through personal influence. Personal influence over the 175 or 200 families in charge during a year's work is not possible for a C. O. S. agent. Such an agent may be an excellent guardian, but only in rare instances can she be a friend.

As to how friendly visiting is made to pay, certain features of the Boston system are particularly suggestive. Those which are set down here bear directly upon the difficulties we had encountered in Buffalo. While some care is exercised in choosing visitors, the Boston society as a rule accepts any persons available, and endeavors to make good visitors of them. If the period of probation shows this to be impossible, an effort is made to convince them that they are unfitted for the work. The society believes "there is nothing like a high standard to discourage haphazard workers."

The Boston workers are also careful to learn from a prospective visitor what type of family she desires to visit. While the choice of the uninitiated visitor may not always be a happy one, the very fact of her making it gives her a considerable part of the responsibility for her success in visiting. From the beginning two families are regarded as better than one. The familiar reasons are a lessening by half the chance of failure, the suggestiveness of the contrast between the two families and the fact that one may be encouraging when the other is disheartening.

The Boston society believes that the best visiting results when visitors can be persuaded on one pretext or another to come to the office each week for writing, committee work, conference, errands, anything which will serve to keep alive their interest until the real acquaintance with the families does it without the aid of the society. The same expedients may be adopted to interest persons who seem qualified but unwilling to visit.

More suggestive than anything else in this connection are the Boston daily committees. No explanation of their function is necessary here beyond the statement that one or two members of the conference come daily to the district office to confer with the district secretary concerning families under care. From the beginning visitors are kept in constant touch with the district secretary. A new visitor is gradually encouraged to come to the office while the committee for the day is there, and she is taken into the informal discussion of the families. This contact with another visitor—for the members of the daily committee are all visitors—is not only suggestive but to a new visitor in the helpless state may be most reassuring.

One of our difficulties in Buffalo is the unwillingness of the visitors to keep in touch with the agents or the district office. Another is the failure of the visitors to collectively accept responsibility for the district work. There is a consequent lack of connection between visitors and a tendency to regard the relation between the agent and themselves as that between expert and layman, with the layman's resulting lack of self-confidence for the work which to him seems work for which the expert alone is qualified. To introduce such a visitor directly to a conference or committee meeting is too big an initial step. In the presence of a large number of persons, apparently all of them of wide experience, the same diffidence prevents her from sharing in the meeting. A number of such persons sitting in sombre silence through a committee meeting have repeatedly sounded the death knell of the meeting.

The sessions of a daily committee, not

stiffened by the intangible formality of a conference, are a very different experience for the new or timid visitor. She may be asked to come to the district office, not knowing that at the time of her appointment the committee for the day will also be at the office. The daily committee will consist of one or two experienced visitors. They may take up precisely the same problems as are discussed at the more formal conference meeting; but tactfully discussed here, the effect upon the new visitor may be the direct opposite of that produced by the conference meeting. An informal discussion between three persons elicits greater response from each than a discussion between twenty in a meeting for which a chairman and not the members is technically responsible. The matters to concern a daily committee may be planned with the sole idea of interesting or assisting the new visitor. When visitors are too timid or too indifferent to confer with any but the agent, the daily committee is an invaluable aid in replacing such attitudes with assurance and interest. Suggestions for improving the condition of her family which might seem too formidable to a new visitor at a conference meeting may be safely made at the smaller gathering of two or three as a committee for the day.

Something must be said for the Boston society's success in retaining visitors for long periods of time. This is indicated by the figures cited earlier in this paper. Doubtless the secret of their success is that they practice most determinedly the principles which every organized charity worker teaches. In Boston the work of the Associated Charities is done by the friendly visitors with an official staff at the central office and in the districts to systematize and direct. In practically all of the conferences which I attended and into whose work I inquired, responsibility for securing new visitors, for raising "B. I." money, as well as for studying the social conditions of the district with the idea of improving them is assumed naturally and readily (though with greater or less success) by the friendly visitors collectively. At one conference, where perhaps ten families were dis-

cussed, the district secretary had less to say than any one of the others present every one of whom was a visitor. To keep the friendly visitors up to a high standard of work and to add to their number is the end towards which the efforts of the Boston workers seem to be directed.

The natural result is an emphasis upon those phases of the work which concern the visitor. At the conference meetings the first business is the consideration of the minutes of the last session. For each family discussed there a report of progress upon executing the conference's decision is presented. Whenever possible this report is presented by the visitor in charge of the family. The minutes are followed by a call for visitors' problems. At this point any visitor desiring advice upon the care of her family presents the facts and a general discussion follows. Then are stated the cases for the day, each of which may be presented by a visitor, the facts having been given her during the week by the district secretary who made the investigation. After consideration of the new cases, another opportunity is given the visitors present of stating their problems. Emphasis is placed throughout upon the work of the friendly visitors.

A training class for new visitors, formerly in charge of a volunteer, was conducted last winter by the secretary of the Associated Charities. The class is using Miss Richmond's book, taking up one chapter at each meeting. Every member is a friendly visitor.

A fair statement of Boston's methods of using friendly visitors would mention the high standard set for the official staff of workers. The Boston district secre-

taries are now being recruited from probationers who are being trained in Boston. All agents in training have at least two families for whom they act as friendly visitors. In many instances, agents have continued as visitors to these families after being definitely assigned to regular agent's work in another district. The Boston agents, therefore, or at least the newer ones, are or have been friendly visitors. The Associated Charities believes that a district agent should combine all the qualities of tact, perception, intelligence, and devotion to the work which are required in a successful visitor. It is a logical argument that visitors may be trained best by agents who themselves are or have been visitors.

This inquiry is in no sense a critical study of the Boston work, designed to measure its success. We believed in Buffalo that Boston was more successful than we in its use of friendly visitors. We determined to learn why. We find that good, friendly visiting requires a close adherence to these principles, laid down by Miss Zilpha D. Smith:

"The suggestions I make for more experienced visitors as to their getting others to do personal work are much the same as those made to a visitor for dealing with a poor family,—to take care really to help the visitor, not simply to give what he asks and needs; to go at it simply and informally; to learn patiently to know and understand him, to have a good social time with him, to give thought to his problems, to use both direct and indirect means to help him to help himself in working them out with the poor family. Each in our time we need such help from our fellow visitors."

Recent Books

- Moral Overstrain.* George W. Alger. 12 mo., 214 pp. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1 net.
- Lessons for Junior Citizens.* Mabel Hill. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1906. D. Cloth.
- The History of Co-operation.* George Jacob Holyoake. Revised edition; 2 vols.; illus.; 8vo; Dutton. \$5 net.
- Studies in Socialism.* Jean Jaurés. Translation and introduction by Mildred Minturn; 12mo.; 197 pp. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1 net.
- A Living Wage.* John A. Ryan; 12mo.; 346 pp. Macmillan Co. \$1.50 net.
- The Larger View of Municipal Ownership.* John A. Zangerle. Published by the author; 12mo.; 67 pp.; paper.
- John Thelwall, a Pioneer of Democracy and Social Reform in England during the French Revolution.* Charles Cestre, New York. Scribner's, 1906.
- Consumption and Civilization.* Dr. J. B. Huber, New York. J. B. Lippincott Co.
- The Life Stories of Undistinguished Americans* as told by themselves. Edited by Hamilton Holt, New York. James Pott & Co.; \$1.50.
- The Labour Party: What It Is and What It Wants.* Conrad Noel, London. T. Fisher Unwin, 1906.
- Marriage and Race Death.* Morrison J. Swift, New York. Morrison J. Press, 1906.
- Twenty Years of Co-partnership at Guise.* Translated from the French by Anewin Williams, London. Labour Co-partnership Association, 1906.
- Continental Outcast: Land Colonies and Poor Law Relief.* Rev. Wilson and Victor Carlile. 1906. Wessels; 143 pp. D; 60c net.
- German Workman; a Study in National Efficiency.* William Harbutt Dawson. Scribner, 1906; \$1.50 net.
- A Cook Book for Nurses.* Sarah C. Hill, Boston. Whitcomb and Barrows, 1906; cloth; 75c net.
- Citizenship and the Schools.* Jeremiah Whipple Jenks. Holt, 1906; 264 pp.; \$1.25.
- Aspects of the Jewish Question: Zionism and Anti-Semitism.* Carl Joubert, 1906. O. Bloch; 98 pp.; 75c net.
- Messages to Workingmen.* Rev. Charles Stelzle. Revel, 1906. D 120 pp.; 50c.
- Street Improvement by Cities and Towns in the State of Indiana.* John R. Wilson and Morris M. Townley, 1905. Burford; O. 124 pp.; \$6.

Employment Exchange.

Address all communications to Miss Helen M. Kelsey, Editor Employment Exchange Department of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, Room 535, 156 Fifth Avenue. Kindly enclose postage if a reply is desired.

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YOUNG woman who has had an unusual opportunity to work among girls desires to take charge of a girls' club or to secure a position as welfare manager.

YOUNG woman who has had some experience in settlement kindergarten wishes position as assistant kindergarten in New York.

WOMAN of considerable experience in settlement outside New York wishes opportunity to work among the Jewish population here. Would accept position covering expenses only.

YOUNG woman of experience in settlement work wishes temporary engagement for October. Would accept small salary.

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Seventh New York State Conference of Charities and Corrections. The New York State Conference of Charities and Corrections will convene at Rochester on Tuesday evening, Nov. 13, for three days.

Dr. William Mabon, ex-president of the State Commission in Lunacy and superintendent of the Manhattan State Institution for the Insane will preside. The local arrangements are being made by a committee under the leadership of the Rt. Rev. Thomas F. Hickey. The prospects for a larger attendance than usual (500) rest on the unique unity of thought given by the construction of the program. A new committee has been added to report on the standard of living. This committee will be given the first session for its report and two papers on the subject. The endeavor will be to sound the keynote of the entire meeting through the application of the standard of living to the various classes dealt with by the other committees—on the care of children, on needy families in their homes, on inmates of public institutions, on the criminal, the sick and the defective. The public will wait with interest to see with what success one standard can be applied to working people in tenements, to women delinquents, to the indigent sick, to future citizens now wards of the state and the other classes compassed by these committees. It is to be hoped that this opportunity for fresh treatment will be boldly taken.

Further interest will attach to this conference for old members and for new in the proposed exhibits of printed matter, models, instruments, photographs, etc., to be made through the co-operation of such agencies as the National Committee for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis and the Field Department of *Charities and the Commons*. A great amount of time has been expended in rounding such things into the best form for specific purposes. It would seem that great saving could be effected through obtaining the wider adoption of such as have been proven successful.

The advance program will be ready about September 30. For information apply to Walter E. Kruesi, secretary, 105 East 22nd St., New York.

Tuberculosis Exhibit in Toronto.

For two weeks, beginning on August 20, the exhibit of the National Tuberculosis Association was held in the new science building, Toronto, under the direction of The National Sanitarium Association of Canada. 12,969 was the registered attendance; eleven afternoon and evening meetings were held and stereopticon slides were shown hourly throughout the exhibit. The *Toronto Globe* in commenting on the success of the exhibition says, "The effort is the most aggressive move undertaken in Canada in the battle against tuberculosis."

Among the speakers were Dr. W. A. Evans of Chicago, Dr. J. H. Elliott of Muskoka, Dr. Livingstone Farrand, secretary of the National Association and Dr. A. McPhedran, Dr. W. J. Dobbie, James Simpson and Balfour Grant of Toronto.

The exhibit will next be shown in Cleveland, Ohio, at 1111 Euclid avenue.

Institutional Churches in France.

While the spread of the social and institutional church in this country has been largely confined to the large cities, it is interesting to note that Catholic France has successfully introduced these branches of church work in rural sections. An anonymous writer in the *Dublin Review* says that with the separation of church and state the church is beginning to recognize its true social mission. In regard to the institutional work he writes:

Of exceptional interest are the accounts given by various curés in different parts of the country of their efforts to promote the local welfare. In many cases the result has been the complete transformation of their parish. * * * We read of improved dwelling houses and cottage gardens, of savings banks, and benefits societies, of lectures and entertainments. It may be pointed out to those who would question the propriety of such social action on the part of the clergy, that these initiatives have been warmly approved and encouraged by the Holy See. They give the priest an opportunity of coming into contact with many whom he could not otherwise reach, and they become in his hands, as the Abbé Ch. Antoine tells us, "instruments of Christian regeneration."

A School Census for New York.

After a lapse of nine years the school census for New York city will be taken in October. The last census was taken in 1897 under a law passed May 7, 1895, which provided that such an enrolment should be taken every second year. President McGowan of the Board of Aldermen and Controller Metz held a hearing on the census question in the spring, at which time a number of social and civic organizations were represented—all pleading for an adequate census. The arguments were favorably considered by Mr. McGowan and Mr. Metz; the Board of Education was anxious that

an accurate enumeration of the school children be made and State Commissioner Draper notified the school authorities of the city a year ago that such a census must be taken. Another month will see the work under way.

Associate Superintendent Edward B. Shallow will supervise the work. The data will be collected by the police department and the results tabulated by the department of education.

The census will be taken under what is known as Chapter 550, Laws of 1895. This law requires that the following facts shall be gathered: The names and ages of all persons between the ages of 4 and 16 years; the number of persons over 4 and under 16 years of age who are attending the public schools, and the number of persons of the same age who are attending private schools; the number of persons over 4 and under 16 years of age who do not attend school because they are obliged to work within school hours, and such other facts as in the judgment of the state commissioner of education and the city superintendent may be of importance in gathering information to carry out the requirements of Article 9, Section 1, of the state constitution, which provides for the maintenance and support of a system of free common schools, wherein all the children of the state may be educated, or for the improvement of the common school system.

Dr. Maxwell and his associate, Mr. Shallow, have prepared a blank for the use of the policemen in taking the census. This blank calls for information relating to children who are crippled, deaf, dumb, or blind, physically unable to attend school, as well as for the reasons why children of school age are out of school.

The census will give the Board of Education an opportunity of learning the place of birth of all children now in the schools, as well as those between the ages of 4 and 16 years who are unable to read or write English, and those who are unable to read or write any language.

The law provides for a fine of \$20 or thirty days' imprisonment for any parent

or one in parental relation who refuses any information regarding his children or tries to suppress any fact regarding age or school attendance.

Census Report on the Feeble-Minded. The inadequacy of the provisions for the institutional care of the feeble-minded is emphasized in a report recently issued by the Bureau of the Census. In 1890 the number of institutions for the feeble-minded was twenty public and four private, while in 1903—thirteen years later—the corresponding numbers were only twenty-eight and fourteen. Twenty-four states and territories are without any institutions either public or private for the care of the feeble-minded, while two have one private institution each. The north central states constitute the only group in which each state has at least one institution for the feeble-minded. To quote the report:

The number of feeble-minded enumerated in institutions on December 31, 1903, was 14,347, and the number admitted to institutions during 1904 was 2,599, a total of 16,946. According to the best authorities, the number of feeble-minded in the general population is not less than 150,000, or more than eight times as many as there are in institutions. During 1904 the number of inmates of institutions for the feeble-minded who were discharged, died, or were transferred was 1,435. Therefore the net increase in the population of institutions for the feeble-minded was 1,164.

The youthfulness of the feeble-minded in institutions is evidenced by the fact that 58 per cent are under twenty years of age and 85.1 per cent under thirty. Most of the feeble-minded are very young when admitted to institutions, 56.5 per cent being under fifteen years of age, 77.2 per cent under twenty, and 90.1 per cent under thirty. The few admitted who are at least thirty are committed for safe-keeping rather than for training and education.

More than three-fourths of the feeble-minded in institutions are afflicted in other ways. Of those with additional defects, about three-fifths are epileptics. As would be expected in a class in which so large a proportion is not only mentally but otherwise defective, the death rate is very high, being 33.9 per 1,000. With respect to the age at death, 80 per cent died before reaching thirty years of age. The age group containing the largest proportion, 22.8 per cent of those who died, was the period, fifteen to nineteen years, which also showed the maximum concentration of the feeble-minded in institutions.

Of the feeble-minded in institutions, 81.5 per cent are supported at public expense, 10.8 per cent at public and private expense, and 7.7 per cent at private expense.

The Census Report on the Insane. At first glance the statistics regarding the insane seem to indicate a remarkable increase in insanity during the thirteen years from 1890 to 1903. The figures collected, however, are restricted entirely to the insane in hospitals.

During the time which has elapsed since the last census the number of hospitals for the care of the insane has more than doubled, the total number being 162 in 1890 and 328 on December 31, 1903. The increase in the number of hospitals was accompanied by a similar increase in the number of inmates, the total being 74,028 in 1890 and 150,151 on December 31, 1903. In 1880 the number of insane in hospitals was only 40,942. The number of insane in hospitals per 100,000 of population increased from 81.6 in 1880 to 118.2 in 1890, and 186.2 on December 31, 1903. Undoubtedly a large part of this increase in ratios is due to an increased use of hospitals by those who in the past had a deep-rooted prejudice against them, and to a more complete enumeration, particularly at the last census. Nevertheless these figures point to an increase in the extent of insanity in the country as a whole. This view is emphasized by the fact that in proportion to the population of the country the number of insane in hospitals in 1903 was larger than the total number of insane, including those not in hospitals enumerated in 1880; the ratios here compared being 186.2 per 100,000 of population in 1903 and 183.3 in 1880.

The increase in the number of insane in hospitals per 100,000 of population is not confined to any particular section of the country, for between 1890 and 1903 there was an increase in the ratio in each state and territory. In many states, particularly the southern states, the ratio is still small, partly because hospital facilities are inadequate and partly because some classes of the population have an aversion to the use of the hospitals provided.

The number of insane admitted to hospitals during 1904 added to the number on December 31, 1903, makes a total of 199,773 insane persons present in hospitals during the whole or a part of the year 1904. Of this number, 49,622, or 24.8 per cent, were admitted during the year; 22,524, or 11.3 per cent, were discharged; 14,434, or 7.2 per cent, died; and 4,775, or 2.4 per cent, were transferred to other institutions. Of the discharged, 76 per cent were classed as improved.

More than one-fourth, 27.8 per cent, of the total insane in hospitals had been inmates of such institutions for less than one year; about one-sixth, 16.4 per cent, from five to nine years; and over one-tenth, 10.5 per cent, from ten to fourteen years. Less than one-sixteenth, 6.1 per cent, had been in hospitals at least twenty years.

Of the 328 hospitals for the insane, 226 are public and 102 private in character. Although only 69.5 per cent of these hospitals are public, more than four-fifths, 82.6 per cent, of the insane in hospitals are supported at public expense. While exact figures can not be obtained, the annual cost of maintenance of insane in public hospitals is approximately \$21,000,000. This excludes the income from pay patients and other sources.

Two Women and a Mother.

Two women from "Coke Hill" saved the children. "Coke Hill" is an evil part of Deadwood, so-called because of the prevalence of the drug habit among the people who live there. The county judge was wise and sympathetic and the traveling representative of South Dakota Children's Aid Society was energetic in presenting her case, but it was the testimony volunteered by these two inmates of a house of ill-fame which carried the day. "I'm not a good woman myself," said one of them—"and I know that their mother is not fit to have charge of these children." So it proved. Not only was the mother found to be a "dope fiend," but she had taught her children to prepare the cocaine which she got the money to buy though the little ones themselves went half clad and illy cared for. Matters had gone on for some time, when the latent motherliness in the neighborhood asserted itself. "These little girls have no future before them if they stay here," said the prostitutes to the authorities. "We wouldn't want daughters of ours brought up in this way."

The court gave the children into the care of Miss Jewell of the Children's Society, and they will be placed out in country homes—striking evidence of what has been fairly a revolution in public opinion in the northwest. When W. B. Sherrard of Sioux Falls, now superin-

tendent of the National Children's Home Society, began his work, a judge of the Black Hills declared that however depraved parents might be in their treatment of their children, the state had no right to step in; and the newspapers of the region upheld his decisions. Against such a position was brought the evidence gathered in case after case of abuse and neglect. It was a long hard fight for the rights of childhood, as against the old property conception of a man's family. But it was won long since and the women of "Coke Hill" are the newest allies to co-operate.

Southwark House Philadelphia.

What was once the parlor is marked with the magic circle of the kindergarten—prime evidence of the change in fortunes that has come to a gabled brick building in the old Fifth ward of Philadelphia. As inn and hotel and saloon, it was long a center and gathering place for the district and now Southwark House is to become a neighborhood center of a contrasting sort.

It is a corner building at Ellsworth and Front streets, and for four or five years has been used for various kinds of social work carried on independently—girls' clubs, a mothers' club, a civic kindergarten and a pasteurized milk plant. The building has been purchased by the Philadelphia Society for Ethical Culture and will be opened the latter part of this month as a settlement under the leadership of Miss Janet Hayes. Miss Hayes has had experience in institutional and educational work, and during the past year has been in residence in several settlements. The present activities will be continued and are represented on the executive committee. Other work will be developed as residence in the district reveals the need for it. Mrs. S. S. Fels, Miss Laura N. Platt, Miss Eleanor Root, Miss Florence E. Sanville and S. Burns Weston are among those identified with the undertaking.

Effect of Good Housing on Morals

Southern Workman

The Negro's opportunity to earn money and his superior average intelligence in Gloucester county, Virginia, have led to the building of good houses. In one of the better districts, in a school of thirty pupils, ten live in houses of six rooms each and only one in a house of one room. The log cabin is rare in Gloucester. These good houses have had apparently a marked influence upon the morals of the colored people. For instance, twenty-five years ago, when three-fourths of the people lived in cabins, bastardy was common. A half-dozen cases among the colored people, and two, by the way, among the whites, in 1903, was regarded as an alarmingly high rate. In 1904 there was but one case among the Negroes within a radius of ten miles from the court-house. There is also but very little miscegenation. In a dozen school-rooms I saw only one child whose father was undoubtedly white. The criminal record for the county also reflects credit upon the homes. For instance, there were thirty arrests for misdemeanors in 1903. Of these sixteen were white and fourteen colored. In 1904 there were fifteen arrests, fourteen white and one colored. The white cases were for stealing oysters. Of felony cases for 1904 there were seven for the county, two white and five colored. This is said to be an unusually large record. Doubtless also the presence of a Negro lawyer to protect the interests of the Negroes prevents many unnecessary arrests, such as occur in places where officers desire to make money by making arrests.

Notes

Tenement Investigation in Kansas City.—Kansas City, Mo., is to have a tenement house commission. Backed by Mayor Beardsley, an ordinance creating such a body was recently introduced in the city council and passed in both branches. The work of the commission will begin at once. The housing conditions of the city's poor will be investigated and a report suggesting improvements submitted to the mayor and council.

The members of the commission are to serve without compensation. The members are: Frank Walsh, J. V. C. Karnes, Walter C. Root, Dr. O. H. Dove, Mrs. Henry N. Ess, Mrs. Lee Lyon, ex-president of the Council of Jewish Women and president of the Temple sisterhood, and Mrs. Kate Pierson, special agent for the Associated Charities.

Housing Reforms in Chile.—The *Diario Oficial* at Santiago announces that a new Chilean law sanctions the expenditure of \$225,000 in gold for the construction of dwellings for the minor grades of state em-

ployes. Another new law of Chile establishes throughout the country councils on workingmen's dwellings. The aim of these bodies is to stimulate the construction of cheap and healthful dwellings and to take such steps as may be necessary for the improved sanitation of existing cheap dwellings.

Medical Sociology.—Announcement is made that the *Bulletin* of the American Academy Medicine will enter upon a new field—a study of questions of social medicine. This plan of specializing in medical sociology is significant of the trend among physicians to give more and more attention to the concerted preventive movements which may be expected to rid the community life of unnecessary disease and defect. These departments are announced in the prospectus of the *Bulletin*:

1. Department of Institutions of Charities and Correction. Dr. James H. McBride, Pasadena, Cal., Editor.
2. Department of Public Charity. Dr. Emma B. Culbertson, Boston, Mass., Editor.
3. Department of Medicine in Popular Life. Dr. J. Cheston Morris, Philadelphia, Editor.
4. Department of Medical Civics.
5. Department of the Legal Control of Medical Questions.

Young Men's Hebrew Association.—The evening educational classes of the Young Men's Hebrew Association of New York city were opened on September 10. These classes are open to all young men of good character. The following subjects are taught: Bookkeeping, commercial arithmetic, stenography and typewriting, mechanical drawing, elocution, penmanship and correspondence, Spanish, German, French, Hebrew and Jewish history.

Modern Alms Houses in Missouri.—The citizens of Jackson county, Missouri, the county in which Kansas City is located, will soon vote upon the question of bonding the county in order to erect modern and adequate alms houses. The county owns a poor-farm some seventeen miles from Kansas City but the buildings are old and unsanitary and were apparently erected with little thought for proper segregation. It has not been decided whether the present site will be utilized or whether a more accessible location will be procured.

Thought for Parents in the Psychological and Moral Evolution of Children is the title of a little pamphlet gotten out by Dr. Charlotte Abbey of the Woman's Directory, Philadelphia. It is in the form of a catechism and the general subject matter is indicated by the first question: "Why is it important that children be given rational ideas in regard to the subject of sex?" Copies may be had by club leaders, settlement workers and others, by addressing Dr. Abbey, 204 South Seventh St., Philadelphia, Pa. Price five cents.

The Introduction of Probation in Italy

Lucy C. Bartlett

Representative in Rome of the Howard Association

The story of the introduction of probation in Italy may start from the moment of my return to Rome in September, 1905. The year's work which had been done previous to this was general—consisting in interesting Italians in the idea, and making my American tour of inquiry. But only with the autumn of 1905 did the actual work of application commence, and the manner of this was as follows:

I first sought to put together a number of volunteer workers who might act as probation officers, after the manner of the work in Indianapolis. I was convinced both from what I had seen in America, and what I had learned in Italy, that only through volunteer work could probation be introduced in Italy. It would be irrelevant to discuss here whether the volunteer system is not always the best in every country; personally I consider that it is, but as want of funds made it the only system practicable for Italy, no indecision, or discussion of this point, arose there.

October and November, then, passed in the formation of this corps of volunteers, and the entire credit of its formation lies with Signor Emilio Re, a young doctor of law who through all the difficult months of preparation has been my counsellor and right hand in the work. Signor Re quickly got together a dozen promising young men, mostly advocates, eager to lend their services to the attempt, and we were in hopes of floating it even before Christmas, had delay not arisen in another quarter.

This came from the department of our patrons. Conscious of the necessity of having the strongest support for an experiment so novel, I had the previous winter enlisted several deputies and senators, and of these the one who took the most active interest was the Hon. Luigi Lucchini, not only a deputy but a counsellor of state, a specialist in penology, and a man of the highest influence both in the political and legal worlds. Signor

Lucchini had also been the means of obtaining through Commendatore Doria, the governor general of the prisons, a promise that the government would financially support our work. He was therefore for various reasons our strongest supporter, and I was conscious on my return from America of the extreme importance of winning his agreement to the plans which America had suggested to me. This however in November appeared to be accomplished. Early in that month he paid me a visit, and we discussed in detail our plan of action. It was decided to make the experiment of probation with all the three categories of delinquent boy reachable under the Italian law. These were:

1. Boys denounced by their parents as unruly, and liable under article 222 of the civil code to be sent to a reformatory.
2. Boys set free under the conditional condemnation.¹
3. Boys set free from prison.

Of these three categories, Signor Lucchini was principally interested in the first one. His plan was to lodge these boys with families in the country, and it was for the board of these, that the government subsidy had been promised. The objections to the plan were, firstly, that suitable families would have been very hard to find, the farming class of Italy being much less civilized than that of England or America, and secondly, that boys so placed would have been removed beyond the reach of our young officers, who would have neither time nor means for making journeys into the country. With the conditional condemnation on the other hand, we should

¹Conditional Condemnation: Law passed in July, 1904 by which first offenders are set at liberty on the condition that they do not offend again. If arrested a second time, they serve two sentences, the one suspended, and the new one earned. Minors, women, and men over seventy are given the advantage of this law if their offence has merited not more than a year's sentence, men between eighteen and seventy, if they have merited not more than six months. The law is being largely applied, but as working at present without any supervision, there are many relapses.

be able to leave them in their homes, adding only to the liberty given them by the court, that friendly visitation and assistance which are the heart of the probation system, and which have worked so splendidly in America. Signor Lucchini's plan, in placing the boys beyond visitation, was, strictly speaking, not probation at all; the dangers of "placing out" without frequent visitation, had been made clear to me in America. Still, as he was willing to try the conditional condemnation, I agreed also to his plan, and Senator Brusa favoring at that time the third category (boys set free from prison), Signor Lucchini instructed his secretary, a young advocate, Signor Bortolotto, to draw up the program of our society on these lines.

For this third category it was necessary to have the co-operation of Commendatore Leonardi, governor general of the "public security" and acting on the advice of Senator Brusa, I therefore next sought an interview with him. However, I could not interest him sufficiently in our project to gain my point. I knew from Senator Brusa that informally he had the power to help us, but it meant stepping outside his routine and he replied in the course of a fortnight, that the co-operation asked lay outside his province.

This rebuff, though not very important in itself, was the beginning of a series of disappointments, which extended into April. When I returned from Padua at the close of November where I had gone to visit a lady interested in the work, I found Rome in the throes of a ministerial crisis. It was quite impossible to get our supporters (mostly deputies and senators) to attend to anything but politics, and this state of affairs continued all winter. Again and again we hoped for our inaugural meeting—again and again Signor Lucchini would send his emissary Signor Bortolotto to me, saying he was hopelessly occupied, and begging me to wait.

In March things were brought to a head. Senator Brusa came to Rome for a short time and we seized this opportunity to ask for a small meeting at once, and on March 5, through his instrumen-

tal, such a meeting of five people did take place. But it only served to show us the uselessness of the winter's waiting. Signor Lucchini was no longer willing to support the plan agreed to in November. He wished category 1 to be the sole basis of our operations.

From this point to the 10th of May was the crucial period for the work, and I consider that the credit of the successful outcome lies almost wholly with Signor Re, and for this reason: At the meeting on March 5, after two hours' discussion, Signor Lucchini succeeded in persuading me to his view. I forgot things I should have remembered, and abandoned the "conditional condemnation." Signor Re never lost his clear sight, and it was a letter from him two days later, which brought me back to our original plan. From that time on, we fought for that plan together, never yielding till with the meeting of May 10 we established it; but I owe it to him that I did not at this point become confused and abandon it.

But the difficulty now was to know what to do about Signor Lucchini—we still did not want to lose him, and we could not yield to him. We began to prepare for another, much larger meeting, hoping that the arguments of competent people would persuade him to the trial of the conditional condemnation along with his own plan. We were ready to abandon category 3, especially since Commendatore Leonardi was offering opposition, but we felt that the plan based on the conditional condemnation must be retained.

For a month we worked hard, and I owe special thanks at this point to the assistance of Madame Vannutelli. On April 8 our second, and perhaps most momentous meeting took place. At this session we numbered fifteen, and all were acquainted beforehand with the point at issue, and were prepared to thrash it out. The conditional condemnation won by a large majority, but we lost Signor Lucchini and with him Commendatore Doria, who represented the government support. It was a loss which might well have frightened us at the outset of the work, had we not de-

cided before this meeting that a loss still more to be feared, was the loss of what we believed the right plan. Never had I felt so hopeful for the work, as when I saw the unanimity with which this was felt by all the volunteers. Everything was tried in the way of conciliation. Professor Ottolenghi, of the Rome University, added the weight of his experience to the arguments of the younger men. I read letters from Turin and Padua, urging the trial of the conditional condemnation. Senator Marchese di San Giuliano, and Countess di Brazzà, both of whom had attended the meeting at some difficulty to themselves, urged Signor Lucchini to try the plan I was advocating. But it was useless; convinced of the utility only of the plan based on category I he told us that unless we could make this the whole base of our operations, he must reluctantly leave us. With equal reluctance, but feeling it unavoidable, we then let him go, taking with him Commendatore Doria, and the government support.

On May 10, in the rooms of the Juridical Club, the meeting took place which floated probation in Rome. Senator Brusa had prolonged a flying visit to Rome to be present. The press had given notices, and private letters had been addressed to various deputies, senators, and leading men of the legal world; some of whom unable to be present, sent representatives, and others letters, signifying their intention to support us. Despite a strike which had broken out in Rome that day, and which kept several people from attending, seventeen were present at this meeting, and in all ways it was an unqualified success. The plan suggested to me in Indianapolis, and matured by Signor Re during the winter, was unanimously adopted with only one modification, and that so wholly advantageous, that it really gave our meeting its success, and made our start as strong as it was.

Among the various personages spoken with by the volunteers in the critical month between April 8 and May 10, was Cavaliere Calabrese, the "procuratore del re" or prosecutor for the crown. All the subjects of the conditional condem-

nation pass through his hands. He became enthusiastic for our plan and said he would give it the semi-official basis of his position. This promise came as the justification of all our struggles, and the crowning of our labors. For the one great weakness in our plan hitherto had been the manner in which we were to gain control of the children. The visitation, once we had them, was to be done by our volunteers, in whom we had confidence. But for getting the children in the first place, we had no better plan than that our society should pay a man to attend the courts, listen to the children's cases, talk with those set free under the conditional condemnation, and persuade them to accept the supervision of our society for the advantages of work which we had to offer them. Of the weakness of this position—the slight hold we should have upon the children—we were well aware; we could see no better way. Here it was, that Cavaliere Calabrese came to our aid, giving to our plan with his co-operation almost the strength of the law. He said that he would pass the children to us—speaking with them himself, and when necessary with their parents. We knew that this would seem "law" to people as ignorant as those who would be in question, and with this promise our worst difficulty was removed. Cavaliere Calabrese attended the meeting on May 10 and reiterated the promise. The meeting concluded with the decision that the work should commence at once, under the guidance of an executive committee of five members whom were chosen as follows: Cavaliere Calabrese, two professors of the university, Professors Ottolenghi and Professor Simoncelli, and two of the volunteers, Signor Re and Signor Trompeo, a young advocate who had worked as devotedly as Signor Re in preparation for this last meeting. All accepted the nominations.

That was the point at which I left Rome. One meeting of the executive committee was held before leaving, but since then there have been several others. Cavaliere Calabrese has more than kept his promises. He has called a meeting of all the magistrates of

Rome, informing them of the existence and scope of our society, and desiring them to recommend, with all possible formality, suitable cases to its care. This is being done. Ten boys are now on probation in Rome. The volunteers are informed beforehand when a case is coming up, they attend the trial, and receive the boy from the magistrate—exactly the procedure observed in Indianapolis. The only difference is that this is not yet law, but is being accomplished through the eager interest of people willing to do a little more than their duty. But is not that the most hopeful way for any reform to commence? We do not want a change in the law in Italy until, through our little experiment, it shall first have been learnt how best to frame, and to apply it.

That is the story to the present moment: Probation is floated, and we believe will live. All the Roman papers gave us generous notices. In Milan, where I went in May, I found that these had penetrated, and there was much interest. It is probable Milan will follow Rome in the experiment before many months have passed. At Padua, too, Signora Omboni, well known for her philanthropic work, is trying her best to persuade the authorities to try probation, but the ground is less fertile there. Still, the seeds are undoubtedly being sown in many parts of Italy. At Turin, Senator Brusa has done much. At Naples, Professor Furlani is doing his best to prepare the way, as he was doing some months ago at Genoa, with valuable articles in the press and the circulation of such probation pamphlets as have been translated. In this work

many are helping. Signor Lino Ferriani, a specialist for many years on juvenile delinquency, recently published a long article in praise of our new society. Our list of members, with elected officers, is not yet framed, but we believe we are to have the president of the Senate as our honorary president and neither in the political, legal, nor journalistic world, shall we lack support.

Since my two-year struggle for probation in Italy has reached fruition, the question is often asked, "How did you know how to go about it?" There is only one answer—I did not know. I have done nothing but try one road after another, till I reached the right one. The year I have not told of was harder than this of which I have told. For help in that first year I am indebted to Madame Helbig, to Countess di Brazza, the Marchesa de Viti, and Madame Vannutelli, all of whom aided me with valuable introductions; the sympathy and encouragement was sometimes worth even more. Special thanks are due to Mr. Meyer, last American ambassador at Rome, and to Mrs. Robert Minturn. Probation in Rome has been built by *many* people. In ignorance of work quite new to me, I have of necessity made many mistakes, some realized, some probably not yet realized. In all of these I have received much indulgence. And for mistakes *unmade*, I have to thank still more deeply certain people who, perhaps unconsciously, have held me from them. No work of value is ever done by one person. I trust that all who have helped to make *this* work, may recognize their share in reading this account.

Crookie

Jessie Cargill Begg

From "Our Hospitals and Charities," London, Eng.

His name was Christopher, but, as he explained, they called him at home "Crookie" for short. The doctors of the big children's hospital to which he had been admitted were afraid that the right leg would have to be amputated above the knee, which was tubercular.

Crookie was thoroughly pleased with his new surroundings. He took an extraordinary interest in his own leg when he found out that there was not a child in the ward who possessed one like it.

The staff nurse made a great fuss over him, and he stood a fair chance of being spoilt.

On the afternoon of the day that the decree had gone forth that Crookie must lose his leg, Nurse Capper armed herself with a formidable-looking splint and the necessary padding, and seated herself by "Crookie's" bed.

"I want you to listen very attentively to what I'm going to say," she said.

"Yes, miss," replied Crookie, demurely.

"I want to tell you something about your leg, because I know what a sensible little boy you are, and that you understand it is for the best."

She bent her head over the splint and went on with a slight huskiness in her voice. "The doctors think that you will not get well unless they take that nasty foot away, so that it will not trouble you any more."

"Do they want to saw it off, sime as they did Billy Brown, wot lives round our w'y?"

There was no fear in Crookie's voice, only intense interest. He lay and thought a minute, and then he said:

"If they tikes it off, then Dr. Pepper won't give me a penny if I don't cry when my dressin's done, an' I reckon I'll 'ave ter 'ave a wooden leg, won't I?"

Nurse Capper put down the splint and patted his small round head in a maternal fashion.

"Lots of boys have wooden legs, Crookie," she said, softly.

But Crookie suddenly became alarmed at the prospect, and buried his head under the bedclothes.

Nurse Capper guessed, from a periodical heave of his small person, that he was crying.

She bent over and whispered, "Crookie, dear!"

"Y-es," came the answer, in a stifled voice.

"Don't you think when your mother comes to-night it would be kind not to let her see that you mind having your leg off?"

"Yes, miss!" He emerged and wiped his eyes on a corner of the sheet. "Do you s'ppose Gawd gives people things if 'e knows they're going ter 'ave their legs took off?" he asked, earnestly.

"If He thinks it is good for them," stammered Nurse Capper.

"All right!" exclaimed Crookie, with an excited gleam in his eyes. "I'm just goin' to pray for something I want reel bad right hoff. 'Ere goes. Our Father chart 'eving—"

"Crookie! Not so fast, dear!"

"Well! P'raps I didn't oughter begin like that. Couldn't I say 'Dear Gawd?'"

"Ask for what you want in your own way," prompted Nurse Capper.

Crookie folded his hands and shut his eyes. He breathed heavily for two or three seconds, then he began, in a low, muttering voice, "Dear Gawd. on Toosday I shall only 'ave one leg, but I wouldn't mind so much if I got the penny whistle I want; but I'll be awful cut up if I get my leg cut off and don't get a whistle." He paused to reflect for half a minute, then went on again. "They're a penny in the Totten'am Court Road, but I know where you can get 'em for an 'alf-penny." He opened his eyes and said, slowly, "'Ow shall I end up?"

"Just say 'Amen,'" said Nurse Capper.

The child closed his eyes, and then an idea occurred to him. "Dear Gawd, I want a whistle like George Wallace. It looks like silver, but it's only tin, Amen."

* * * * *

It was the day after Crookie's operation. He was slumbering peacefully early in the afternoon, when he was rudely awakened by a shrill voice in the next bed, "'Ullo, Crookie! Wike up an' let me see your whistle!"

Crookie opened his eyes and smiled faintly. "Is that you, Carrot Top?" He held up the whistle for inspection.

"It's a fair beauty!" exclaimed Carrot Top, standing up in bed in his excitement.

"I wouldn't 'ave 'ad it if my leg 'adn't bin took off," said Crookie, with a sigh of satisfaction. "Why don't you arst Dr. Pepper to tike hoff your arm, so as you can 'ave one too?"

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The Albany
Prison
Congress.

The Albany newspapers of Monday, during the session of the National Prison Congress, presented this contrast: In one column were St. Petersburg dispatches telling of such hatred of the government that it is impossible to find a hangman in Russia; that the two last military hangmen committed suicide; that even convicted murderers refuse to execute on behalf of the Czar. Meanwhile hanging has been changed to shooting, and hands tied, heads bent, bound in a row to a cable, groups of revolutionists "are killed in wholesale executions all over Russia amid scenes which for terror and pathos surpass the novelists' imagination."

So much for the Russian dispatches; along side them was the more prosaic story of the meeting of prison wardens, chaplains, physicians, probation officers—men and women working out in forty states methods by which a modern people may deal with its anti-social classes by other weapons than the gallows or the bomb. The significance of the contrast is perhaps most emphasized by the large probability that a good share of these American prison reformers are of the type that are in the flogging pens of the Russian fortresses in this time of unrest, or sent to Siberian exile if they are so fortunate as not to get the death penalty.

This year's meeting of the National Prison Association brought together 350

out of town delegates—the record attendance—and gives promise of an enkindling interest in the Congress. Under the presidency of Cornelius V. Collins the resourcefulness of the prison men of New York state had been enlisted to bring this about, and the results have proved the effort worth while. The delegates' badge bore the profile of the late Dr. E. C. Wines, and the men who for many years have led in the councils of the Congress were not absent. But other faces, those of men newly entered into practical administrative work, were scattered about the Senate chamber. So, also, were there contrasts in the addresses delivered—Bishop Doane whose sermon dealt emphatically with prevention but harked back to a divinely appointed death penalty for murder—J. G. Phelps-Stokes, who arraigned society for environments which produce criminals and appealed for a justice, larger and more loving, and Mrs. Ballington Booth, who held a large evening audience with her plea that where there is life there is hope of regeneration—behind prison bars as in the old fairy story in the Bible. "Thank God," she said, "there are some of us children enough still to believe in that fairy story (and the other). And of such, are we told, is the Kingdom of Heaven."

A review of the proceedings will be published next week. Chicago was selected for next year's conference.

**The New York
Association of
Neighborhood
Workers.**

The opening of the activities of fall and winter in the settlements gives interest to a report compiled by Mrs. Simkhovitch, of Greenwich House, of last year's work of the association of neighborhood workers. Not until they are gotten together in this way, is it easy to realize the variety of things to which the neighborhood workers address themselves in a concerted way in the course of twelve months. The association numbers 140 members. A special committee on street cleaning gathered a great deal of useful information in regard to the condition of the streets in settlement neighborhoods and reported its findings to proper authorities. The committee on public health undertook the supervision of an investigation on midwifery, the money being furnished by the Union Settlement.

In order to show the need for a school-census, five settlement workers, at the suggestion of the committee on education, made a very limited census, —a portion of a city block in each case, —to determine the number of children unregistered. In five neighborhoods, Orchard near Rivington street, Jones street, West 46th street, East 34th street, and East 102nd street, were discovered thirty-four children between the ages of eight and fourteen years, whose parents acknowledged they were unregistered. Between the ages of six and fourteen, seventy-eight children were found. In one case a comparison of data given by parents with the school registers in the district showed that some of the children were not registered as claimed. 783 families in all were visited. Taking the number of families in Manhattan as given in the tenement house census of 1900, it will be found that if the proportion discovered by this canvass be general, there were at the time of the investigation nearly 17,000 children of compulsory school age unregistered in Manhattan alone and over 39,000 children between six and fourteen years.

Immediately following this canvass,

Superintendent Meleney, who has the department of attendance in charge, promised to have blanks drawn up on which settlement workers could report directly to him any unregistered or truant children. These blanks are now obtainable at the Board of Education.

Early in the year, at the invitation of the committee, Robert A. Woods, of South End House, Boston, delivered to the association and its guests an address on Industrial Education. This address was reported at some length in the following issue of *Charities and the Commons*. Mr. Woods dwelt on what he calls the "two wasted years," those between fourteen and sixteen, in the lives of working boys and girls.

The committee on legislation consists of the chairmen of the various standing committees, with the president of the association as chairman. The first meeting of the committee was held on January 16th and in all fourteen meetings were held. 781 bills were forwarded to the chairman by the Bureau of Legislative Information. Of this number thirty-three were approved by the association, and fifteen were opposed, making a total of forty-eight bills concerning which the association took action. Of the thirty-three bills approved by the association, seventeen have been signed by the Governor and have become law, one was lost in the Assembly and fifteen held in committee.

The bills which affected most vitally the work of the association and upon which most vigorous action was taken, had to do with such subjects as the seaside park, the removal of the 11th Avenue tracks, probation, bakeries and confectioneries, accidents, local option, employment bureaus, goods made in tenant factories, hours of employment, employers' liability.

Of the fifteen bills opposed by the association thirteen were held in committee, one became law (A. 194, Prentice) after its objectionable features were removed and one was passed in the Assembly and Senate, but vetoed by the Mayor (A. 2254, Page, motor boat club).

The heavy work of this committee could not have been carried on without the active co-operation of Union Settlement.

The chairman of the sub-committees which together form the legislative committee were in constant communication with the Consumers' League, Child Labor Committee, the charitable societies, Public Education Association, Prison Association, Anti-Saloon League, S. P. C. C., etc., as well as with judges, lawyers, and various representatives of Trades Unions and other associations for social progress.

The officers for the year were: President, Gaylord S. White, of the Union Settlement; vice-president, Dr. J. H. Hamilton, University Settlement; acting secretary, Miss Madeline Z. Doty; treasurer, Miss Mary W. Ovington.

The committees for the year were: Tenement house, chairman, Dr. James H. Hamilton, University Settlement; public morality, chairman, Rev. Leighton Williams, D.D., Amity House; parks and playgrounds, chairman, Mr. A. A. Hill; co-operation, chairman, Miss Williams, College Settlement; education, chairman, Mrs. A. A. Hill, Normal College Alumnae; legislation chairman, Rev. Gaylord S. White, Union Settlement; relief, chairman, Miss Steel, Greenpoint Settlement; labor and industry, chairman, Dr. John L. Elliott, Hudson Guild; membership, chairman, Mrs. V. G. Simkhovitch, Greenwich House; conference, chairman, Miss Mathews, Hartley House; public health, chairman, Miss Wald, Nurses' Settlement; meetings, chairman, Dr. Blaustein, Educational Alliance; publication, chairman, Mrs. V. G. Simkhovitch, Greenwich House.

Tuberculosis Camp in Chicago.

Chicago's latest step in the warfare against tuberculosis is of much greater significance than its modest start would indicate. The camp just established by the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute consists of but three portable cottages having a capacity of not more than twenty patients. The aim is to demonstrate how

little money is necessary to restore the patient to health and normal working capacity if the case is taken in hand early enough. As Mrs. Lenora Austin Hamlin, the superintendent of the camp, puts it, "we are devoting adequate medical attention, good food and air to our patients. It is a case not so much of money as of excellent and unremitting care. If six lives are saved this winter it will be at a cost of \$185, outside of the first cost of establishing the camp—surely cheap for a life."

After a somewhat disheartening search in various neighborhoods for a site, the Board of Commissioners for Cook county offered a plot of ground at Dunning, where the almshouse with its insane asylum and tuberculosis sanatoriums is located. The county furnished the water supply, drainage and electric lighting. At a cost of \$1,500, the gift of the auxiliary board of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute, three portable cottages were provided, consisting of a dormitory, dining room and kitchen, and the camp was thrown open September 3. The nurses in attendance live on the second floor of the dormitory cottage.

The actual cost of each patient's board is about \$5 a week, and whenever possible the patients or their relatives will pay this amount themselves.

The direction of the camp is under the executive camp committee, composed of Dr. H. B. Favill, chairman; Mrs. Arthur Aldis, Mrs. Jesse L. Moss, Miss Harriet Fulmer, Dr. Ethan A. Gray, Dr. Theodore B. Sachs, Dr. John A. Robinson, Sherman C. Kingsley, and Mrs. Lenora Austin Hamlin, superintendent.

The attending staff of physicians is Dr. Ethan A. Gray, Dr. Theodore B. Sachs and Dr. S. R. Pietrowicz, while the consulting physicians are Dr. H. B. Favill, Dr. Frank Billings, Dr. John A. Robinson, Dr. Arnold C. Klebs, Dr. E. W. Ryerson, Dr. R. H. Babcock, Dr. N. S. Davis, Dr. C. L. Mix and Dr. W. A. Evans.

**B. Franklin
and
B. Washington.**

"Get real estate," said one man, "and everything else but the Kingdom of God will be added unto you." It is in such bald axioms as this, and at the sessions

of the National Negro Business League, that Poor Richard would find modern versions of the sayings of his almanac in largest number. For in these experience meetings—for that is what the conventions really are—is to be found the extreme expression of the gospel of industrial efficiency growing out of Tuskegee. Dr. Washington himself presides. Negro physicians, manufacturers, contractors, bankers, druggists, coal dealers, and the like, get up and tell the story of hard work, the homely virtues, thrift and success. But it is not to be supposed that idealism is lacking. Far from it. For instance, this year's meeting, held at Atlanta, was marked by a breaking away from the preaching of merely individual success. The speaker was a day laborer, and his plea was for day laborers to work for more than themselves; to work together.

His was one of four significant stories told by men in the trades, important not only as demonstrating their personal ability, but as showing their relation to the labor problem of to-day. They are reported by Miss Ovington in the *New York Evening Post* as follows:

R. F. Walker of Macon, Ga., told of his starting out to work at twelve years of age, of his severe apprenticeship in the bricklaying trade to his step-father, an apprenticeship that was almost penal servitude, of his becoming at nineteen a skilful bricklayer, and of his reaching the position of foreman. He learned to figure and draught, studying in the evenings after a severe day of work, and at twenty he got his first contract. It was a two-story building which he completed in sixty days, and which brought him a clear profit of \$600. "And everybody was satisfied." At present he is putting up a building that covers two acres of ground, 210 feet each way, for which he has contracted.

James Wallace of New York, walking delegate of the Asphalt Workers' Union, was next called upon to speak. Dr. Washington introduced him as president of a union in which the membership consisted of negroes and Italians, but Mr. Wallace said: "I do not represent any especial race of men. I stand for the pavers of America. I'm not

from the South" he went on to say. "I'm from Virginia" (at which many of the audience laughed loudly), "but I live now in New York. You've all been telling of how you've been working to get along yourself. Well, I haven't been working for myself. I only get a laborer's pay, but I've been working to get better money for the pavers of New York. I've done it. I've succeeded so that they've improved their condition from getting \$1.50 a day to now as high for some as \$4 a day. I want to say that I'm interested in our having skilled workmen. We need men in all the different trades, and if they come North they must remember that they've got to be efficient or there's no place for them. And let me say you should not antagonize the unions. Don't come North to do it. Come North as laboring men to go in with the laboring men, not with the millionaires."

When Mr. Wallace sat down a man from Little Rock, Ark., said that the labor union might be all right in New York, but he didn't want it in Little Rock. White men in the union wouldn't work with colored men in the union, whereas non-union men of the two races would work together. He employed from fifteen to twenty men. He started with a pot of paint and a ladder. Now he bought his paint by the barrel; "got other men to climb his ladders for him," but, he ended, "I'm trying to keep my boys out of the union. They get from \$2.50 to \$3 a day and I'm not going to pay them \$4."

John J. Winston, of New Orleans, then told of his building business. All four of these men were young or of middle age, of African type, and yet each with a strongly marked personality. "If you put me down in a cotton patch to-day," Mr. Winston said, "I reckon I'd be like a rabbit in a briar patch. I worked in a cotton field when I was a boy, and until a white contractor gave me the chance to learn a trade. My first contract, fifteen years ago, was a four-room cottage. My first contract in 1906 was for a \$22,000 building. My business this year amounts to \$60,000.

"I'm invited to figure on the best jobs in New Orleans. All my work is for white people—because they've got the biggest jobs. I keep forty men at work. All the plasterers are colored, but the lathers are white. I haven't been able to get reliable colored lathers. I am a union man, and I pay union wages, 50 cents an hour. I've succeeded because I keep to my agreements. If a man says 'meet me at ten o'clock' I don't come around at noon. And I'm willing to take risks. The colored people are too afraid of taking large contracts because they don't dare risk."



Distributing flowers left from a social function.

The National Plant, Flower, and Fruit Guild

Florence Ledyard Cross

"Was das for" thundered a thrifty old German as he saw his wife without permission extract a quarter from the cash drawer in their little delicatessen shop to pay for their window-box of plants. "O, for de flowers?"—his voice softened to a rough kindliness, and he continued with approving nod, "das all right—das all right!"

And "das" is the way the flowers have; they make gruff people amiable, and sick ones cheerful, and lonesome souls companioned, and busy ones rested. The poor as well as the rich desire their beauty and solace. Only with the poor the flowers must often be made of paper, because the blossoms that waste their fragrance on the desert air are too far away to gather, too expensive to buy.

The people who live in tenements love flowers. The mother likes to "dress up the mantel" with them, her daughter puts them in her hair like other girls, her husband tends a potted plant as if it were

his best sewing machine. The tenement children go wild after flowers, some starved sense asserting itself. The district nurse, the settlement resident, or the charity worker anywhere cannot walk a block with uncovered flowers that she is not surrounded by an eager little mob, shouting in forty different keys and voices, "Aw, give me one, please give me one!"

These workers find many another evidence of a blind longing after God's world in the sordid, dreary, man-made world of the tenement house where children grow to be men and women without ever even seeing a yellow dandelion. There is the boy in the old Greenwich village district who laboriously made a garden in some flower pots which he collected from the ash-cans, and which he set in the little paved yard of the big tenement until the agent drove him and his garden into the air-shaft where in that dank, sunless vault they never blos-

som. In winter this child makes his garden of an onion in a bottle of water, and with joy beholds the roots come down, and the leaves shoot up. There is the old woman in Mulberry street who cultivated a sickly potato plant in a little starch box on her fire-escape, but it never blossomed, and so one day when her son brought home a faded carnation in his button-hole, she confiscated it and pinned it on the potato vine, just to do her heart good. And there is the little boy on the lower East Side who stole three beans out of his mother's pan, and he dared not tell her he had made their supper less, until he saw her delight in the two little green heads that pushed their way up out of the box of dirt he had collected in the street. On the upper East Side is the little girl who watched her budding geranium with growing wonder, and asked, thinking it might be a fairy godmother—"Can it grow anything it likes?—Could it make a rose or a lily?"

Systematic flower distribution was begun by a few women who believed in the sweet influence of flowers, and in the right of every human soul to a share in God's world of nature. The Plant, Flower and Fruit Guild was formed thirteen years ago, its purpose being to systematize existing efforts in the distribution of flowers, and to increase the supply.

In the beginning the object of the Guild was to carry cheer and brightness into the lives of the sick, poor and the tenement housed; this object has grown to include also the desire to awaken and satisfy a love of nature, of beauty, and of civic improvement. The work is carried on in several ways.

1st. By distributing cut flowers from country homes and social functions, potted plants, fruit and jelly to hospitals and tenement homes, either directly or through settlements and other charitable agencies.

2d. By placing in tenement houses, window boxes filled with growing plants.

3d. By distributing throughout the tenement districts seeds and plants by establishing backyard and vacant lot gardens wherever possible.

4th. By supplying nature material for

the classes and the free flower shows held in public schools and elsewhere for the benefit of the tenement children.

The Guild has grown steadily and has been incorporated as the National Plant, Flower and Fruit Guild, with branches in many of the large cities and numerous smaller towns. Perhaps there is no other charity conducted on so large a scale with so small a capital. This work is made possible through the great generosity of the large express companies who have given the Guild authority to issue a label which guarantees free transportation within one hundred miles of their destination, for plants, flowers and fruit, each box to weigh not more than twenty pounds. The gathering and collection of these materials being a voluntary service, their distribution a task gladly accepted by charitable workers everywhere, the growth of the Guild is as natural as that of a plant itself.

To briefly summarize what the Guild is accomplishing we may take the results in New York city alone, where the work is best developed. Persons in over one hundred towns in New York state, New Jersey and Connecticut since May have been sending flowers, some regularly, others irregularly, to about one hundred and fifty charitable institutions in New York, Brooklyn and Jersey City, at the rate of from one to two thousand bouquets a day.

These flowers come from fields and gardens, from those of the village and farm, as well as those of the large estates. In many places hardy flowers that travel well are grown for the Guild. In one village the Guild Branch has for three years conducted a community garden in which fifty children work regularly. This garden was the outcome of a lecture given by the Guild showing the hard and painful side of life in New York. The work has given the village people a new interest, and through such lectures, doubtless has helped to counteract in the growing children that fascination for life in the great city. Among the contributors to the Guild, two especially must be mentioned. The boys of the New York Juvenile Asylum at Chauncey, all summer have gathered



A district nurse carrying flowers to a sick child of the tenements.

flowers for other boys on the lower East Side. A club of working girls from that neighborhood have spent their Sundays all summer in doing the actual work on a small flower-farm in the Bronx that they might send the blossoms amidst their own sick and poor. The awakened, unfaltering interest shown by these tenement-bred girls in their novel and difficult work has made the experiment one of significance in economics

Every kind of charitable endeavor is welcome to its share, and the Guild is glad to receive applications for flowers from any and all of them. The supply of flowers at times fairly meets the demand, but jelly, fruit and vegetables run far short. The settlements, the day nurseries, the hospitals, the district nurses, the missions among the colored, the Chinese, the Bowery toughs, or the prostitutes, chapel services and evange-



A tenement room showing the prize flower box of a crippled Italian boy.

listic meetings of all denominations ask eagerly for the flowers and are supplied so far as possible. The poor girl who wants flowers for her wedding, the mother who wants them for the boy's grave, the fond aunt who would bear them to a christening, the men and women of the tenements who love them, and all the children who clamor and grasp for them are among the eager recipients.

In imitation of the very successful window-box gardening in tenements in Berlin, the Guild has placed in Manhattan tenements nearly one thousand window-boxes, buying them wholesale at \$1.25 each and selling them for twenty-five cents or more, as the recipient can afford. Some boxes must be given free. They are invariably well cared for, often lovingly. In only one box have the plants died. In the summer of 1905 the experiment was begun and prizes were offered for the best boxes. One of these was awarded to a crippled Italian boy living in a rear tenement whose flowers for sunshine had only that reflected from the house opposite. Prizes are soon to be

awarded also for the best window-boxes cultivated this summer.

In the spring about fifty back-yard gardens were wholly or partly planted with seeds, bulbs and shrubs from the Guild, and the distribution of about ten thousand potted plants formed the nucleus of many others. Several hundreds of these plants went to school children during May and were presented for prize-distribution in June. The splendid growth of almost one hundred per cent. of these plants showed the attentive care they had received.

The gift of flowers can never pauperize, so they can be given freely. They carry with them an earnest of friendliness. The settlement resident wants them to take to her foreign neighbor. Without them the missionary in Chinatown could not open closed doors. In a concrete way they help in all kinds of charitable endeavor and in bringing the flowers and plants into the lives of the sick, the tenement-housed and the children, the Guild is adding strength to the influences that cheer and uplift and those that safeguard the young.

The New York Pushcart

Recommendations of the Mayor's Commission

To clear the East Side streets of the ruck of pushcart peddlers without injustice to these small tradesmen, but thoroughly enough to make for sanitation and open traffic, was the task set for a commission appointed by Mayor McClellan about a year ago. Its report has now been given out. The commissioners believe that by dividing the city into two areas, granting roving licenses in one, but designating stationary stands for all pushcarts in crowded tenement streets, and limiting their number to four to a corner, the problem, which they hold to be primarily a traffic problem and so falling under the police department, can be solved. The report of the commission is not yet from the press, but will be, aside from its practical purposes, a picturesque analysis of one of the most interesting phases of the half foreign street life of New York. It is written by Lawrence Veiller as chairman of the commission, along lines similar to the Tenement House Report of five years ago—the detailed investigation being in the hands of the commission's secretary, Archibald A. Hill. Other members were Health Commissioner Thomas Darlington, Street Commissioner John McGaw Woodbury, Dr. E. K. Browd, the Rev. G. A. Carstensen, the Rev. Bernardino Polizzo, Miss Lilian D. Wald and Gregory Weinstein.

The basis of the evil of the present system of the pushcart trade, is that four or five thousand peddlers are crowded into comparatively small districts and these the most congested in New York. Carts stand in unbroken lines on some streets, interfering with traffic and adding to the danger of fires. This crowding the commissioners found has no relation to the needs of the population as purchasers and they hold that the traffic could be abolished entirely without loss to anyone but the peddlers themselves. This is thought unnecessary however if the pushcart men can be more evenly distributed throughout certain sections of the city.

The investigation goes to show that there is no special danger to the commu-

nity from the food supplies sold from pushcarts, for the wares are usually as good, if not better, than the supplies sold in neighboring stores. While, generally speaking, it has been found that the pushcart peddlers are not poor men (they earn on an average from \$12 to \$15 a week) the report shows that many of the city's licenses are farmed out by padrones, who make large profits. Petty blackmailing and the sale of indulgences through the police was found to exist and a similar system prevails among many shop keepers whereby peddlers are regularly made to pay tribute.

The commission finds that basket peddling is an unnecessary nuisance and recommends its abolishment. Sidewalk stands in the congested districts are almost as great an evil as the pushcarts and should be similarly regulated.

The work of the commission has been especially marked by its recognition of the social facts of population in New York. "The city is a cosmopolitan one, the home of representatives of nearly every nation in the world and the customs and habits of many of its inhabitants are not the customs and habits of others; practices which would not be tolerated in one part of the city are necessary and desirable in other parts. Many of the attempts that have been made in the past to solve the so-called pushcart problem, and also other social questions, have failed because of the failure to recognize the fundamental fact that laws which are good for one part of the city, may not only be valueless but may even work great hardship in other sections."

This view, then, is the basis of the commission's recommendation that the city be divided into two broad districts, to be known as "restricted" and "unrestricted" districts. The "restricted" districts are to be the congested tenement quarters.

Consequently two kinds of licenses are to be issued: traveling licenses and stationary licenses; the former, to be good only in the unrestricted districts, per-

mitting peddlers to sell their wares in any portion of such districts and to travel from street to street.

The stationary licenses are to be good only in the restricted districts and only in the particular portion of each street named in the individual license. In these "restricted" districts the number of pushcarts is to be limited to four carts on each street; one at each of the four corners, but located twenty-five feet back from the corner. These stations will be disposed of at public auction to the highest bidder once a year. A minimum license fee of \$10 will be charged for all licenses and a premium will be paid, as may be determined at auction, for such amounts above this \$10 fee as the peddlers may desire to bid in competition depending upon the desirability of the individual location.

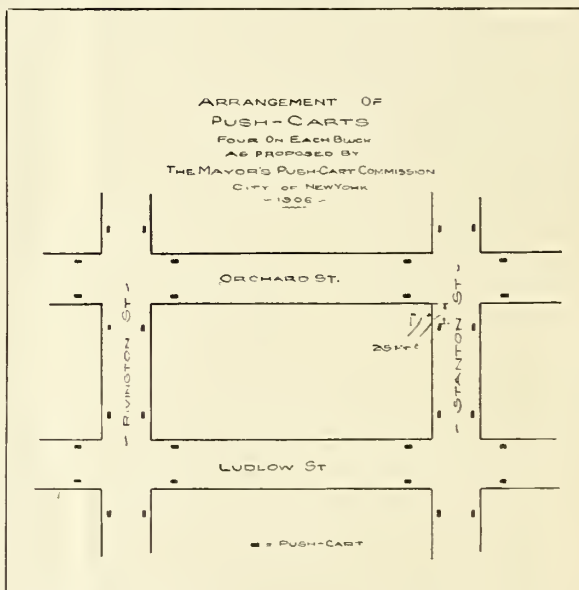
A peddler who is thus awarded a license to stand, for instance, on the west side of Orchard street, 25 feet south of Rivington street, will have the right to maintain his pushcart at this point at all times for one year. He will not be allowed to sell goods at any other point; nor will he be allowed to move his pushcart up and down that block except when going to and from his station night and morning. During such progress he will not be permitted to sell goods. There will be another peddler at the corner below him, twenty-five feet north of Delancey street, and two others directly opposite on the east side of Orchard street as shown in the accompanying drawing. No other peddlers will be permitted to ply their trade upon that block at any time during the year. These four peddlers therefore will have, during the period of one year, the exclusive privilege of peddling in this street, their only competitors being the shopkeepers. For this privilege they will pay the city instead of the shopkeeper as at present. Each peddler securing a stationary license will be given two signs, which must be fastened upon the end of his pushcart. Their cost will be included in the \$10 license fee. One sign will contain the

license number of the peddler's license, the other will contain the location at which he is entitled to stand.

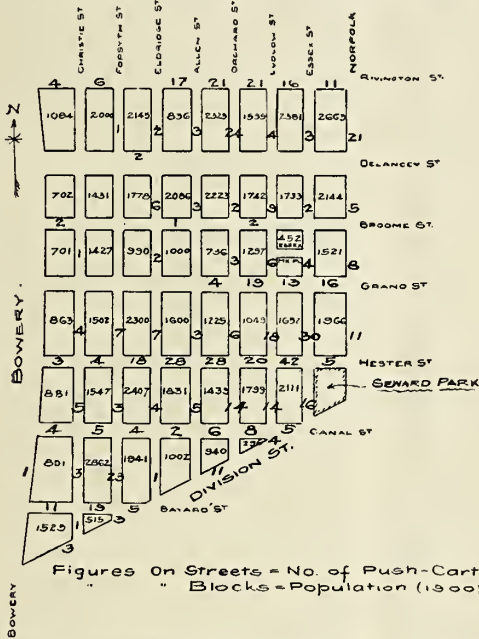
Although there will be only two pushcarts on each side of each street, it will be seen that anyone standing at any corner will be able to have access immediately to eight pushcarts within a radius of 50 feet, thus completely serving the needs of the tenement house population. The commission found 2,362 peddlers in the district south of 14th street and east of Broadway. Under the plan of the commission for stationary licenses, with one pushcart on each corner, 2,634 pushcarts can be accommodated in this district, or nearly 300 more than are now there.

In the unrestricted districts traveling licenses will be issued. These will not be for any definite location, but will permit the peddler to sell his wares at any point outside of the restricted districts and will permit him to travel from street to street. In these districts the peddlers will be required to locate one at each of the four corners, and twenty-five feet back from the corner, just as in the restricted districts.

The commission further recommends that the minimum license fee for all kinds of pushcart licenses be \$10 a year and



10TH WARD - JEWISH QUARTER -
 MAP SHOWING NUMBER OF PUSH-CARTS
 FOUND ON EACH STREET BY
 THE MAYOR'S PUSH-CART COMMISSION
 CITY OF NEW YORK
 MAY 11, 1905.
 DISTRICT BOUNDED BY
 RIVINGTON TO DIVISION - BOWERY TO NORFOLK



that stationary licenses be auctioned off once a year to the highest bidders, who will pay premiums beyond this minimum fee.

All licenses will expire on July 1 of each year and the amount of the fee be the same irrespective of whether a peddler has had a license in previous years.

The report further suggests that all horse and wagon peddlers be forbidden to ply their trade in restricted districts in order to prevent an unfair competition with the peddlers holding stationary licenses. To further prevent confusion the commission recommends that the forms used for stationary and traveling licenses be different and that each license issued contain, both in English and in the language spoken by the holder of the license, provided he is either Jew, Italian or Greek, the privilege which the license confers.

In order that each license issued be

solely personal property the commission suggests that any license found in the possession of a person to whom it was not issued be confiscated and declared void. That no person keeping a store be permitted to hold a license; that no license be issued to any peddler who does not own his own pushcart; that the pushcart must be presented at the time the license is issued and the sign bearing the license number be then affixed by the enforcing authorities. That before a license is issued the applicant shall fill out a blank giving his name, address, age, nationality, and such other facts as may be required by the enforcing authorities. That the enforcing authorities shall take a photograph of each applicant for a license, and also a description of the applicant's chief characteristics; namely, height, weight, sex, color of hair and eyes, etc.; that these photographs be uniform in size and be kept on card records in the office of

the enforcing authorities, together with the other information above mentioned. By these means the present padrone system will be entirely done away with, also the system of extortion by shopkeepers, as well as the barter and sale in city licenses.

The suggestion that a photograph and description of the peddler's physical characteristics be required to be filed among the records of the enforcing authorities, originated with the peddlers themselves. All of the peddlers who testified before the commission including the three leading nationalities, namely, the Jewish, Italian and Greek, were unanimous in this suggestion. Some even went so far as to state that they would be willing to have the photograph on the license itself, and some being willing that it should be displayed on their carts.

With respect to temporary licenses the

commission recommends that such be issued good only during the Jewish and Italian Holy-days, and the Christmas season, no such license to be good for any period longer than two weeks; the minimum fee for these licenses to be \$3; all of the conditions relating to the granting of other licenses to apply to these temporary ones; and no such temporary licenses to be granted in "restricted" districts except for such stations as may not be occupied.

Penalties for peddling in the city's streets without a license are fixed at arrest and imprisonment for not less than one week nor more than one month. That the penalty for peddling in a "restricted" district when holding a "traveling" license or in an "unrestricted" district when holding a "stationary" license will be confiscation of the pushcart and forfeiture of the license.

The program suggested, will, it is thought, not only do away with con-

gestion of the streets, but will put an end to police blackmail; the peddler being stationed at one point, cannot be ordered to "move on" by the policeman, cannot be arrested for obstructing traffic, for standing in the wrong place, for standing more than thirty minutes in one spot, nor for any other of the charges on which peddlers are now most frequently arraigned. The enforcement of the ordinances will be comparatively simple; the patrolman on post will be the enforcing officer and the special squad now assigned to the license bureau will no longer be necessary, but can devote its time to other more important work. "Under this system it will not be necessary either to remove the peddlers from the streets or to reduce the number of licenses. By a proper distribution of the peddlers all of the present evils can be remedied, but such distribution must be automatic and must be permanent."

Tramping as a Pastime

Clarence Smedley Thompson

Author of "*Railroad, Town and Tramp in the Middle West.*" "*How Tramps Work the Railroads.*"

[This, and a companion sketch by Mr. Thompson to be published in a later issue, are the first of a series of articles dealing with foot-loose members of society and written by those who know them first hand.]

We are all more or less familiar with one recruiting agency for the army of hoboes—that of hard times. A panic or a strike, falls upon the land, and the poorer mechanic fails of work. Again the daily struggle for existence forces him down and out. He becomes penniless. But he needs must live. So he takes to the road, and becomes hobo, not by choice, rather by necessity. His particular division in the brotherhood is one of constantly changing number in direct ratio with the industrial barometer, and his particular case has been argued at length by many writers—social, political and moral.

There is another recruiting agency for the army of hoboes. It is hardly so well known perhaps, yet it is no less certain of luring men to the under world. It is the agency of good times—that is, of good times on the road. The new recruit

may have served a term through the agency of hard times. Be that as it may, he now enrolls himself in the brotherhood by choice. He may have work at hand, and at good pay too, but he prefers to wander. No argument for a settled life holds him to his task. He is in pursuit of happiness, and while other men are seeking it at home, he is abroad day and night.

In particular, I am referring now, not to your professional tramp, who knocks at the back door for a "hand-out," who inhabits the dark places of the street hunting for a dime, and otherwise waits upon us in time of need. He never works. He is only out for graft. He makes it a business and so imbued is he with his superiority over ordinary mankind, he looks down upon all those who do labor, and especially those of his own brotherhood. I am referring to that man

who deliberately wanders from place to place because of the pleasure it gives him. He delights in the pure, sweet air of freedom. He enjoys a wild ride on the front end of a passenger train. He likes to see the country, and his pulse quickens in the game he plays against the railroad and the town. He is not above working in the ditch at times. In fact, he much prefers to save a meagre earning—a "stake," since it provides him with meals on the road, and if need be, lodging as well.

The recruit of good times is bounded by no geographical line. He is found on the cattle ships of the Atlantic, in the lumber camps of northern New England, on the farms of Kansas in harvesting time, in the railroad construction camps of all the western lines, in the Colorado potato beds, and in the ranch country of Wyoming. He works for a while in each place, and then moves on. He rubs elbows with home-living men, and they frequently find him a good worker, but they find him a good goer as well. His home is a place called no-where, and his destination is usually no-matter.

If any attempt is to be made toward labeling these pleasure-seeking recruits for purpose of sociological study, they should be bottled and tagged, so to speak, rather on the line of age. It then becomes plain that young men predominate. The workers are under middle age. This classification further shows a good percentage of boys on the road—little fellows with knee trousers. As a rule, these boys are seldom seeking work. Their object is just a good time, and their penniless condition frequently leads them to wander in the ways of the professional tramp.

In a South Canal street employment agency at Chicago, I fell into conversation one night with a lad still in his teens, who had shipped to western Iowa for railroad work. He was a promising boy of blue eyes and flaxen hair, and with his tender white hands and face, he seemed altogether out of place with the vagabonds about him.

"You're pretty young," I ventured, "to be working on a railroad?"

"Working?" he responded. "Me work

on the railroad out there? Not on your life. I'm simply jumping into the country for a change. I off on a vacation, pard."

On reaching Bayard, Iowa, a few days later, I discovered two youngsters, neither one more than fifteen, headed on a pleasure jaunt to the Pacific Coast. They had stolen their way from Chicago, and were awaiting an opportunity of boarding a train for Omaha. They had neither money nor friends, but that in no way hindered their proposed trip.

"Gee, there's nothing like this travel on the road for an appetite," exclaimed one of them. "We've been doing nothing but eat ever since we left Chicago." Their plans on arriving at San Francisco were still unsettled. "We may decide to get on a boat," said the leader, "or we may strike down south, and come back here for cold weather. It all depends on the state of our health. You see we're just off for an outing."

Back in Chicago from Cheyenne a few months later I fell in with six other lads, none of them yet out of his teens, and all of them out for "de sport of it." It may be a significant fact that one and all of these boys were traveling in the role of professional vagabonds. They were not only stealing rides on trains, riding blind-baggage in some instances on the fastest expresses, but also sleeping outdoors, in barns and under haystacks, and even at times begging "chuck"—that is to say, food. They had even borrowed a hobo vocabulary. Thus they referred to Chicago as "Chi," and spoke with all the feeling of a professional "piker" in such terms as "hand-outs," "lumps," "shacks," and "bulls."

Again, one is forever meeting with "stakemen," if the term may be used in meaning the better class of hoboes, who earn their "stake," and move on. They have penetrated every nook and corner of the United States, and neighboring lands as well. It is the boast of many of them that they have done it all without having spent more than five or ten dollars in railroad fare. They look upon this travel as a relaxation, and they take to the road sometimes in the face of an earnest appeal to the contrary.

Between Chicago and Buffalo, one may sometimes work his passage on freight steamers of the great lakes. I once took such a trip on the "Russel Sage," from Toledo to Buffalo, and when we docked in the slip the first mate came to me offering good wages and steady employment if I would stay until navigation closed. I asked him if deck hands were scarce.

"We pick up a lot of men," he said, "but they don't stay with us. They earn a bit, and then they quit in order to get back for what they call a good time on the road."

As there are men who make a regular business of seeking pleasure on the road, so there are men who occasionally step into the profession on an amateur standing. I have a good friend, now editor of an esteemed New York publication, who looks back with pleasure to a journey he once took as an amateur hobo, and whose experience no doubt can be duplicated by many college men throughout the country, or at least in the west. It was done in his college days, on his way home from a European trip by the cattle-ship route. He had landed in Boston alone and penniless. He might have telegraphed for money, or indeed sought out

Boston friends. But he was less than 200 miles from home, and for the fun of it he decided to go on hobo fashion. At Back Bay station he jumped on the front end of a Boston and Albany express: that too, in the broad daylight of an early September evening. He rode through Worcester, dismounting and mounting with the skill of a professional rider, and though he was "ditched" as Springfield, he later passed successfully through such good-sized cities as Hartford, Meriden and New Haven.

In conclusion, let me call attention to an interesting analogy between these two recruiting agencies for our hoboes—hard times and good times. On the one hand, the poorer mechanic in the struggle for existence is led on to the next town because he gets no recognition at home. Much in the same way your other recruit, more capable perhaps as a mechanic, is led into traveling because he finds poor food, or none at all, at home for his pleasure-seeking appetite. He is therefore hunting for it on the road: his ears shut to that sweeter refrain:

"Stay, stay at home, my heart, and rest;
Home-keeping hearts are happiest,
For those that wander they know not where
Are full of trouble and full of care;
To stay at home is best."

Notes

A German Co-operative Household.—A "housekeeping association" on the co-operative plan is about to become a reality in Berlin, where the ground has been bought and plans made for an apartment house having one central kitchen to serve all the families. There will also be a central laundry, and reading and recreation rooms, bowling alley, gymnasium, swimming pool and baths. By reason of the space saved on individual kitchens, the rent will be proportionately less.

A Berlin Idea.—A well-known Berlin philanthropist gives yearly a considerable sum by which bright pupils from the common schools are selected from families with small means, to enjoy extended tours, either in mountain or in city regions, during the vacation. These trips, which give unbounded pleasure, are enjoyed by the donor in the accounts which the children write of their travels, and one bright lad who showed especial gifts was lately endowed by this friend of children to take a higher education and fit himself for the profession of teach-

Hebrew Technical Institute.—The large attendance at the opening of the fall term of

the Hebrew Technical Institute is indicative of the growing number of Jewish boys to enter mechanical and industrial pursuits. Here they obtain instruction in the wood-working trades, machine-work, instrument-making, mechanical, architectural and free-hand drawing and design, carving, and practical electricity. Besides the shop courses, instruction is given in the subjects taught in the public schools. Pupils over thirteen years of age who have finished the 7B grade of the public school are eligible for admission. A few more pupils can be accommodated in the junior class, and those who desire to enter the school should apply at the office of the principal, 36 Stuyvesant street.

Superintendent of Lyman School for Boys.—Elmer L. Coffeen of Marshalltown, Ia., has been appointed superintendent of the Lyman School for Boys at Westboro, Mass. Mr. Coffeen has been actively engaged in the juvenile court movement in Iowa; he has done probation work in his home city and is identified with a Marshalltown boys' club. His present position as superintendent of an Iowa school district enrolling some 2,700 pupils has brought him into closest contact with work among boys.

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Chicago's Summer Outing.

To him who contemplates Chicago's congested population by square miles at 60,000 souls each, 12,323 summer outings must indeed seem few compared with those that were needed. There were, however, 3,943 country outings in 234 towns of six different states as distinguished from the rest of the 12,323, which are classified as camp or day outings. Such are the facts shown in the "country outing summary" which the Chicago Bureau of Charities has recently published in its weekly journal *Co-operation*. And the results of the summer's efforts—breaking the outing records of all previous years—are due to the spirit of the word which the Chicago Bureau has so fittingly given to the news bulletins of its work. Co-operation was the keynote this year as never before. From the early spring when the agents of the Bureau traveled through the towns surrounding Chicago and found a hearty response to their appeals for shut-in Chicago, to the summer months when the "shut-ins" discovered the joys of actually being "out," it seemed as if everyone became inoculated with the outing fever. And the only hint of rivalry was between two ideas—whether the most happiness was to be gained from getting an outing or giving one.

The transportation lines by rail and boat rendered effective and generous assistance. Country committees aroused local interest. Trained and faithful

workers in the Bureau organized the work. Settlement folk, mission church workers and visiting nurses brought together the parties of children and mothers. Settlements, suburban churches and Chicago newspapers maintained camps.

How great an advance the Bureau of Charities made on its work of the preceding year is apparent by comparison. The 1905 total was 8,561; that for 1906 was 12,323. In 1905 there were 2,893 country outings of two weeks each in 191 towns; in 1906 they numbered 3,943 in 234 towns. Camp outings of one week each amounted to 1,193 in 1905 and 1,302 in 1906. And day outings, which footed up but 4,475 in 1905, came to 7,078 in 1906.

While many groups of people contributed to this great work, it was by no means the sum total of Chicago fresh air work for 1906. The social settlements and other agencies were glad indeed to make up parties from their neighborhoods to take advantage of the opportunities which came through the Bureau. But many of the settlements maintained their own summer camps in addition, and some of them through their different groups and organizations found themselves reaching out in three or four separate outing enterprises. The Forward Movement Settlement, with its large and hospitable summer grounds at Saugatuck, Michigan, afforded large opportunity for those who could pay their own way wholly or in part to secure a vacation

at low cost; and a way mark of its progress was the enlargement and betterment of its facilities for entertaining the schools of crippled children who make an annual visit to this health-giving and delightful place on Lake Michigan's shores.

If the total volume of the outings made possible for Chicago's crowded city center dwellers, including all the enterprises carried on independently or in co-operation with the Bureau, as well as the magnificent work of the Bureau itself, were fully known, Chicago's 1906 vacation would prove to have been a banner one for those who needed it most.

**The Fight
Against the
Plague
in Japan.**

The fight which the Japanese are putting up against the plague is inspiring to those who are confronting tuberculosis, yellow fever, infantile disease and the like in this country. It suggests to what lengths American death rates could be lowered if dirt, poisonous foods, congestion and other causal factors were assailed with the vigor with which the Japanese are addressing themselves to this task. And it is significant that a plea for international co-operation in this war of peace is proposed by a representative of the Oriental people, who in war have taught the world by the sanitary work in the field, how to protect troops from the diseases which in camp and on the march have wrought havoc equal to that of the firing line.

Professor Kitasato in an article in a recent number of the *New York Medical Journal* shows what a drag disease is to Japan, especially the plague. Even now, when we read that there were a million visitors in Tokyo in June, the plague in all its horror is spreading throughout the country.

In the past ten years it has been epidemic in various parts of Japan; in 1899 and 1900 in Kobe and Osaka; in 1901 in Wakayama; in 1902 and 1903 in Yokohama and Tokyo; in 1904 in Kobe, and in 1905 scattered through the country at many points.

In each instance, inanimate objects rather than patients have introduced the plague apparently. Thus vessels

coming from infected ports, such as Hongkong and Bombay, brought the germs in their freight. Cotton was landed and from this the plague was started. The disease has always started at a point communicating with foreign countries and spread inward. It has always infected first the rat tribe and by the time human victims were discovered the disease was well established. Thus, in 1905 infected rats were found in February, and in May human victims were found.

The Japanese have found that a winter epidemic is generally chronic, raging for a long time over a large area, while a summer epidemic is usually acute, severe but of short duration and limited to a small area. To prevent this contagion spreading, the Japanese have tried everything and invented much more. Thus, for killing rats aboard a vessel, rat-destroying boats are used with success, while on land rat-killing devices, traps and poisons, are provided for every dwelling and warehouse. Where dwellings can be tightly inclosed, formaldehyde is used; or, if possible, the buildings are burned down and rebuilt, sewerage is enforced and filth burned. Around infected areas zinc walls are constructed and metal nets placed in the sewers; then a search is made for rats, these walls and nets preventing their escape. In Tokyo alone there are zinc walls to the length of four miles. Their use has always been followed by a great destruction of rats. In addition the government buys all rats that can be found, spending in Tokyo alone one hundred and sixty thousand dollars for this purpose since 1900. As a result five million rats have been killed and yet their number is not appreciably decreased, for they increase at an enormous rate. The Japs found that the destruction only lessens the struggle for existence and the rate for multiplication redoubles.

Searching for patients is also an important part of the work of prevention, for it has been found that only about one-tenth of the cases are reported. Physicians are given police power. In-

specting physicians convey suspected cases to an isolating hospital and those exposed to danger are inoculated with pest vaccine. The pest serum and vaccine have been used now in thousands of cases, but their value is not yet definitely settled. In Taiwan, Formosa, 10,000 people were inoculated and only seven were attacked by the plague, while of 40,000 uninoculated over 500 were infected with the plague.

The expense to which Japan has been put by this disease has been terrific. One city alone spent more than \$300,000 in the first epidemic, while in the second Tokyo spent \$15,000 for each victim. These are the direct burdens, but the indirect effects are not estimable.

To quote from an editorial in the September *Medical Times*:

The practical problem arises at once as to the total destruction of the plague. This cannot be done in Japan, or in San Francisco, but must be undertaken in the countries where the disease is pandemic. In India and Southern China the plague is deeply rooted, producing each year over 200,000 cases. Plague is a menace to mankind and should be so treated. All civilized nations should combine and fight this common enemy. Expeditions should be sent to these regions to change conditions completely. The expense would be money well invested, for it would mean the saving of millions of lives. As Kitasato points out, a small part of what civilized nations are spending for their armies and navies would be sufficient for this beneficent purpose.

**Ohio's
Sixteenth
Charities
Conference.**

Three busy and profitable days are promised by the advance program of the sixteenth Ohio Conference of Charities and Correction. Following the opening sessions on Tuesday evening, the real work of the Conference will begin on Wednesday, October 2. "Juvenile Charities" will be considered at the morning session. Various section meetings are arranged for the afternoon and in the evening Dr. Henry C. Eyman, superintendent of the Massillon State Hospital,

Hastings H. Hart of Chicago and James A. Leonard, superintendent of the Ohio State Reformatory at Mansfield will speak.

Thursday morning will be devoted chiefly to the subjects of city charities and infirmaries. The problems of the district nurse and juvenile courts, together with the aims of organized charity will be considered. Miss Ellen Kershaw of Columbus, C. M. Hubbard, superintendent of the Cincinnati Associated Charities, Samuel L. Black, judge of the Juvenile Court of Columbus and James F. Jackson, superintendent of the Cleveland Associated Charities are among the speakers.

The problems of the infirmary will be considered from the standpoint of the superintendent, the director and the matron. L. C. Showers of Sidney, D. M. Welday of Steubenville and Peter W. Durr of Carthage are on the program.

An excursion to Blennerhasset Island has been arranged for the afternoon of Thursday. In the evening Professor James E. Hagerty of Ohio State University will report on universities and social settlements. Child labor in Ohio will be discussed by J. H. Morgan of Columbus, Professor J. W. Jones, superintendent of the Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb at Columbus will speak on the special training of blind mutes and Alexander Johnson will tell of the significance and importance of state conferences. The final session on Friday, October 5, will be given over to committee reports.

The conference officers are: President, J. L. Jordan of Marietta; vice-presidents, J. M. Brown of Toledo and Mrs. S. B. Sneath of Tiffin; secretary, H. H. Shirer of Columbus; executive committee, N. W. Baker, Chauncey; R. C. Burton, Zanesville; Rev. W. S. Eagleson, Columbus; John Kaiser, Marietta; Elmer Hoge, Tacoma; Dr. R. T. Trimble, New Vienna; Mrs. Zell P. Hart, Warren; Mrs. Lizzie B. Sweetman, Circleville.

The National Prison Association

Samuel J. Barrows

Such is the name, with the addition of "The United States," of the organization which last week held the largest meeting in its history at Albany, N. Y. But the title, large as it is, was not large enough to include all the delegates, fourteen of whom came from Canada. Of these Col. Irvine came all the way from Manitoba, and Col. J. C. White, warden of the British Columbia Penitentiary, came from New Westminster, British Columbia. A consciousness that the name of the Association is not broad enough, inspired a motion for a revision of the title so as to make it ample enough to cover the whole of northwestern America. This cannot be done without changing the articles of incorporation. As the Association is incorporated under the laws of New York state, the change when agreed upon, will no doubt be promptly sanctioned by the legislature of that state.

The full attendance registered reached 398. Of these 170 were New Yorkers, 79 being from Albany and 91 coming from other parts of the state. Next in number of attendants was Illinois which had 27, New Jersey following with 21, Indiana 20, Ohio with 19, Pennsylvania with 18, Connecticut with 14. It was interesting to note that West Virginia with ten representatives sent within one as many delegates as Massachusetts. The number of states represented including the District of Columbia was 36, and Canada made still another political division.

Seventy-eight addresses were predicted for the six days of the conference. Diction and prediction do not always coincide. Some of the speakers failed to appear and some of the papers were read only by title; but their places for the most part were made good by others. The bill of fare was rich, perhaps over-elaborate. The time for discussion was often too limited; but the president and secretary did not mean that time should run to waste. The discussion that did not take place on the floor was supple-

mented by the discussion which always takes place between meetings and at meal times. Many things are thrashed out in these welcome social interludes which cannot be flailed at the meeting. And yet, why not have a little more of it at the meetings? The Association is singularly devoid of cranks. And though some may object to having the dust fly too much, there is no danger of moral and intellectual tuberculosis.

I have not time to review the program in detail nor even to characterize the many excellent papers. Will they not all be found eventually in the chronicles of the chief scribe, and will they not constitute another valuable and I can conscientiously say interesting, contribution to American penology?

The opening address of the president, Hon. Cornelius V. Collins, won deserved commendation. Mr. Collins has not been the superintendent of prisons in New York state for eight years without having profited by this unusual opportunity. His paper embodied the following recommendations:

First—A rational and uniform system of jail administration.

Second—A uniform system of education for prison officers.

Third—A uniform system of education for convicts.

Fourth—So far as possible a uniform system of prison discipline.

Fifth—A uniform system of classification.

Sixth—A uniform system of parole.

He was especially severe upon the present jail system. As he truly says "the jail buildings are improved and the prisoners are better fed than they were fifty years ago; otherwise the system remains practically the same. The extensive schemes of penal administration in the several states have their fatally weak part in the jails."

The conference, impressed by Mr. Collins' recommendation, appointed a strong committee to report at the next meeting on the jail system in the United

States. We may expect a powerful arraignment of this antique and vicious system.

The wardens came to the front with some excellent papers as they do now at nearly every prison congress. The opening address of warden N. N. Jones of Fort Madison, Ia., at the meeting of the Wardens' Association on Monday morning, was a broad and succinct treatment of the warden's relation to current prison reform. He dealt with the prison labor problem briefly but intelligently, showing how small an element in the total product is the contribution of prison labor. The relation of discipline to reformation was finely stated: "Discipline is the medium through which all reform becomes effective. The attitude of the warden towards reform should be sympathetic and receptive."

A paper in the same spirit though not delivered till the last day of the session was that of warden C. E. Haddox of the West Virginia Penitentiary, Moundsville, chairman of the committee on prison discipline. Mr. Haddox came to his work as warden a few years ago with a trained mind and a sympathetic and receptive spirit. He has become now an authority in his own profession and no address during the week was more frequently applauded. There was hardly any aspect of the work of a prison which Mr. Haddox did not treat in an effective way.

The paper on prison labor by Hon. John T. McDonough, ex-secretary of state, New York, was listened to with much interest because it was known that Mr. McDonough had taken an active part in securing the constitutional amendment prohibiting the sale of prison-made goods in the open market. Mr. McDonough dealt with the historic aspects of the question in New York state and regarded the New York system as a great success.

The writer of this article disputed Mr. McDonough's proposition and replied to the paper on the floor. While defending the educative system of labor at Elmira and admitting that the four thousand prisoners in the state prisons were earning one-third of their maintenance,

he showed that several thousand prisoners in jails and penitentiaries are supported in idleness.

As there is no space here to give even a full abstract of Mr. McDonough's paper, it would hardly be fair to state fully the argument against it, but there is no more important subject before the people of the state of New York than the idleness which has grown out of the present labor system.

An interesting and attractive feature of the congress was the exhibition of goods and products from the penal institutions of the state. A few of these were from the reformatories but the great majority were from the state prison. Many of the delegates were surprised at the variety and the excellent quality of the products of state prison labor. The question naturally presented itself why the men supported by the state, in the penitentiaries, or those supported by the counties in compulsory idleness should not be permitted and compelled to labor in making these things or others just as good. There was no more powerful arraignment of prison idleness in New York than this excellent exhibition of prison labor.

Warden Haddox voiced the opinions of many when he said that "the great trouble with the average convict is that he not only does not know a trade but that he has not been drilled in any kind of labor and prefers to obtain his substance from the labor of others by surreptitious, unlawful and unjust means. The habit of labor is what he needs more than the specific kind of work." What shall we say when the state or its political divisions conspire with the prisoner to make him an idler and mendicant and a useless member of society?

Very earnest was the moral appeal of J. G. Phelps Stokes of New York on "The Justice of Probation," presenting as it did from deep sympathy and conviction the aspect of social responsibility for much juvenile crime.

Monday evening Mrs. Maud Ballington Booth of the Volunteers of America gave one of her eloquent and sympathetic addresses in behalf of the man in the cell. One could not help feeling

how important an element is Mrs. Booth's charming personality in securing the confidence of the prisoner.

While Mrs. Booth represented one phase of the work for reaching and helping the prisoner, the representatives of the Salvation Army from Canada, stood for another method but for the same sympathetic spirit. The excellent work done by Mr. Pugmire and Mr. Spencer of Toronto, won cordial recognition.

The heat interfered somewhat with the pleasure of the beautiful trip to Lake George.

The Chaplains' Association held their meeting in the afternoon. Rev. Dr. Batt, chaplain of the Massachusetts State Reformatory, who has so long been the faithful president of this association and whose work has been thoroughly appreciated, at last retires from the presidency and will be succeeded by Rev. Albert J. Steelman, chaplain of the Illinois State Prison. After the chaplains' meeting one of the visitors said: "Why should not the chaplains conduct their work on as broad lines as the doctors and the wardens? Why when Catholics and Hebrews are present at a chaplains' meeting, should the Protestant chaplains lapse into the dialect of revivalism or the dialect of polemics? Everybody knows that they all use different methods and different liturgies; but why in a meeting of this kind should they not emphasize the things which they have in common instead of the things which separate them?"

Certainly the chaplains' meeting will prove more useful and interesting if ground for such criticism is hereafter removed.

The meeting of the Physicians' Association was interesting and important. The president, Dr. S. A. Blitch, of Florida, expounded and defended the open system of handling prisoners in the South as compared with the penitentiary system in the North. The address of Dr. F. H. Wines on the prisons of Louisiana conceded many of the points made by Dr. Blitch. Somewhat unexpectedly the same question came up from a northern standpoint in the re-

port of Judge Simeon E. Baldwin as chairman of the committee on criminal law reform. Though this question belongs rather in the field of prison administration, Judge Baldwin was heard with interest and regret was expressed that there was no time to discuss his paper.

"The Tuberculosis Problem in Prison and Reformatories," by Dr. S. A. Knopf of New York, was written to command the respect of the medical profession from an eminent authority in this department and also to awaken popular interest and a greater sense of social responsibility. Dr. Knopf not only knows how to write, but how to deliver effectively what he has to say.

There were other addresses which ought to be mentioned if this review were intended to be even a catalog of the good things on the program.

The hospitality of the people of Albany was gracefully and cordially extended and the receptions offered were much appreciated by their guests. The Albany papers started out well with the opening meeting but soon fell from grace and apparently had little appreciation of the importance of the meeting.

The senate chamber furnished a noble hall for the sessions. To some of the New York delegates there was a joyous sense of freedom in being able to sit in the chairs of Senators Malby, Grady and Brackett, with all the privileges of the floor. If the congress could only have been allowed to settle right then and there, some of the practical questions in penology which trouble the state of New York, there is little doubt that it would almost unanimously have abolished the iniquities of the jail system, brought the penitentiaries under state control and made larger provisions for preventive and probation work.

The Association meets next year in Chicago, when Warden Murphy of Joliet Prison as president. A complete list of officers follows:

President, E. J. Murphy, Joliet, Ill.; first vice-president, J. L. Milligan, Allegany, Pa.; general secretary, Amos W. Butler, Indianapolis, Ind.; financial secretary, Joseph P. Byers, New York;

assistant secretaries, H. H. Shirer, Columbus, O.; L. C. Storrs, Lansing, Mich.; W. C. Graves, Springfield, Ill.; treasurer, Frederick H. Mills, New York; official stenographer, Isabel C. Barrows, New York.

The following are committee chairmen: Board of directors, Henry Wolfer, Stillwater, Minn.; executive committee, Joseph F. Scott, Elmira, N. Y.; criminal law reform, S. E. Baldwin, New Haven, Conn.; preventive and reformatory work, W. H. Whittaker, Jeffersonville, Ind.; prevention and probation, Julian W. Mack, Chicago, Ill.; prison

discipline, Jas. A. Leonard, Mansfield, O.; discharged prisoners, Mrs. Maud Ballington Booth, New York; statistics of crime, S. J. Barrows, New York.

Chaplains' Association, president, Rev. A. J. Steelman, Joliet, Ill.; secretary, Rev. W. E. Edgin, Jeffersonville, Ind.

Prison Physicians' Association, president, Dr. W. D. Stewart, Moundsville, W. Va.; secretary, Dr. O. J. Bennett, Allegheny, Pa.

Wardens' Association, president, F. L. Randall, St. Cloud, Minn.; secretary, C. E. Haddox, Moundsville, W. Va.

Employment Exchange.

Address all communications to Miss Helen M. Kelsey, Editor Employment Exchange Department of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, Room 535, 156 Fifth Avenue. Kindly enclose postage if a reply is desired.

A YOUNG woman who has had experience with children wishes position as assistant head worker. Middle West or South preferred.

D OCTOR of Medicine who has been assistant superintendent in hospital wishes charge of an institution where medical training is not the first requisite.

G YMNASium teacher who is employed two evenings a week in a Y. W. C. A., wishes additional appointments for day or evening in New York or vicinity.

A POSITION is desired in or near Chicago by a young woman who has had some experience both in settlement and in C. O. S. work.

K Indergartner with some experience in settlements wishes work with children where her training would be of value. Would consider institution, school or settlement.

A WOMAN of superior training in Arts and Crafts, who is interested in settlement work wishes classes in New York or vicinity.

A COLLEGE woman who has been a teacher and who was identified with institutional work in Cuba wishes position in social work where executive ability is desired.

A MAN who has had experience in industrial schools for boys and probation work wishes position in charge of such activities in a small city. Middle West or East preferred.

A YOUNG college woman, resident in New Jersey, who has had slight experience in social work wishes employment that would allow her to live at home. Would consider position as beginner in any line of philanthropic work.

WOMAN who has had charge for some years of a nursery in an institution is seeking preferred change of location. Vicinity of New York preferred.

A WOMAN who has had extensive experience in keeping records, receiving applicants, etc., in the office of a C. O. S. wishes similar work.

A WOMAN who has had charge of a day nursery and some experience in girls' club work wishes position as matron in children's home or nursery.

A COLLEGE woman practically familiar for several years with various forms of social service, including organizing, writing and speaking, desires a position preferably connected with work for children.

G RADUATE of the School of Philanthropy who has done practical work in C. O. S. of large eastern city desires employment as visitor for any New York organization.

Y OUNG college man now employed evenings in settlement desires morning or afternoon clubs or classes.

M AN who has held position in institution for children wishes employment in reformatory for boys or as agent for children's society.

W ANTED—Correspondence with young and active women who have had a nurse's training and who are interested in social work. Positions as visiting nurse for which the above qualifications are necessary are open in the West and South. An older woman is also desired for a position in New England. A graduate nurse is not insisted upon.

W ANTED—Young woman as assistant in the office of a settlement, who will give her services in return for board.

W ANTED—A man for part time position in a New York settlement. Salary sufficient to cover board is offered for work during part of the afternoon and evening.

W ANTED—A financial secretary to take charge of the systematic raising of funds for a society in an Eastern city. A woman of executive ability but without previous experience would be considered.

W ANTED—A teacher of cooking and sewing in a mission in the South. An Episcopalian is preferred.

The Annual Meeting

of the Charity Organization Society of New York City, will be held on Wednesday, October the tenth, at 3 p. m., in the offices of the Society (Room 306), of the United Charities Building.

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